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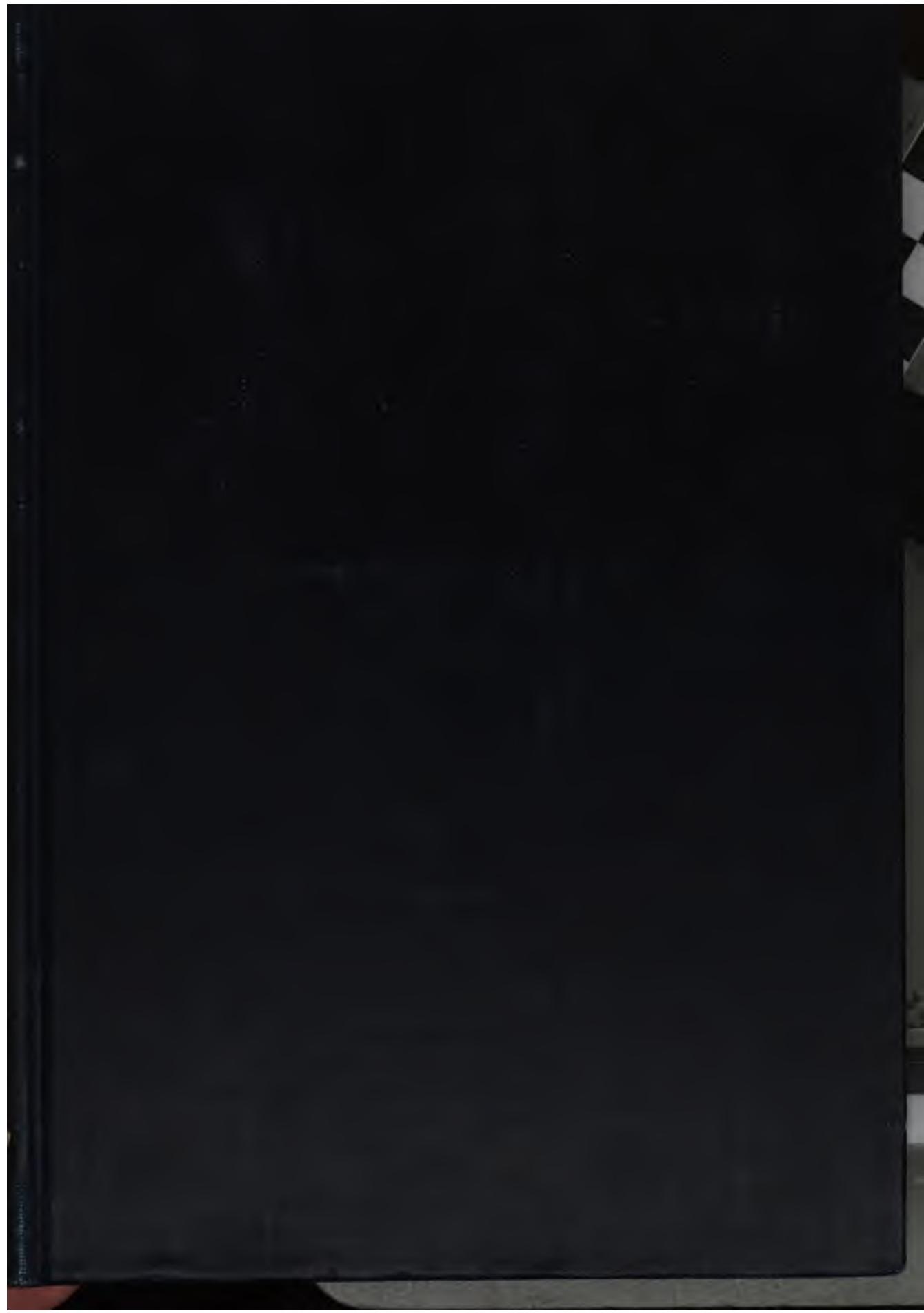
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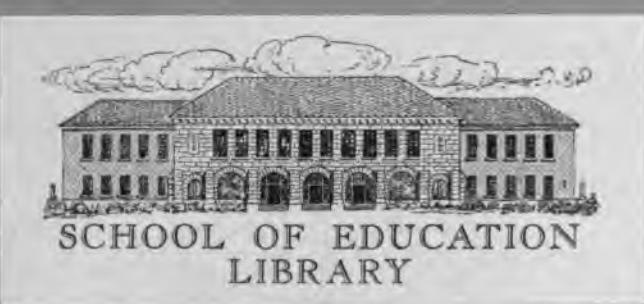
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland

1904

HELD AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

FRIDAY AND SATURDAY, NOVEMBER 25-26, 1904

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4 *Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools*

Second Session, Friday, November 25th, at 2.30 P. M.

Topic: Is the Payment of Tuition in the Free State University
a Just Charge on the Public Treasury?

President JOHN H. FINLEY, College of the City of New
York.

Professor JOHN L. STEWART, Lehigh University.

General Discussion:

Dr. JAMES M. GREEN, Principal State Normal and Model
Schools, Trenton, N. J.

Third Session, Friday, November 25th, at 8 P. M.

Address: The Public Function of the Public School.

Mr. EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, Executive Secretary of
the Southern Education Board.

9 P. M. Reception tendered to the members of the Association
by President and Mrs. Wilson, at Prospect.

Fourth Session, Saturday, November 26th, at 10 A. M.

Topic: The Simplification of the Secondary School Curric-
ulum.

Professor MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, University of Penn-
sylvania.

Miss LOUISE H. HAESELER, Philadelphia High School for
Girls.

Mr. JAMES G. CROSWELL, Principal of the Brearley
School, New York City.

General Discussion:

Professor ANDREW F. WEST, Princeton University,
Princeton, N. J.

President JOSEPH SWAIN, Swarthmore College, Swarth-
more, Pa.

President ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, Lafayette College,
Easton, Pa.

Mr. W. W. BIRDSALL, Principal of the Girls' High School,
Philadelphia.

Miscellaneous business.

Election of officers.

Adjournment.

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
Eighteenth Annual Convention

FIRST SESSION

Friday, November 25th, at 10.30 A. M.

Dr. Truman J. Backus, President of the Association, Presiding.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

Mr. President: It is with very great pleasure that I welcome you to Princeton. Princeton lies a little off the main lines of travel. We do not often have the pleasure of seeing so many of our friends here; and yet I would like very much to see Princeton regarded as on the main lines of travel for visits of this kind. Nothing gratifies us more than to have assemblies of this sort come to Princeton, both to confer with us and to criticise us; and then it affords something to talk about after they have gone away.

It seems to me that the value of a conference like this (and I am sure you will agree in the judgment) is not so much the discussion of subjects and methods of study as a certain adjustment and accommodation of points of view and the fostering of community of spirit and of principle. The reason we come together is that we may understand each other better and that our differences of opinion may be accommodated by knowing the needs that lie behind them, and the points of view from

which they have been taken; and ever since I began the study of the history of this country it has seemed to me that there is no region of our country in which this sort of thing ought to be easier to do than the region represented by this assemblage. The Middle States have always seemed to me the most typically American part of the United States—typically American in the fact that they were mixed of all races and kinds from the first: not pure in blood, like New England and the South, not given over to any special point of view, but from the first containing the complete American mixture.

This has given them a greater elasticity of mental movement, has given them more ability to see from more points of view, than any other region of the country. I should not like to say how few points of view have obtained in New England; as a Southerner I should not like to say how exclusive the views of the South have been. I am content, now, merely to dwell upon the variety of view which has obtained in the Middle States. It ought to be possible, therefore, for us, by conference, to do a better service in American education than is open to some other assemblages of the day; because here we feel more of the American spirit of the double sort: not only this newness and this mixture, but the oldness which connects us with the old world. There is a certain value in breathing the salt air of the Atlantic, which brings us the flavors out of an old age to which we also belong, as well as in being stimulated always in a new continent, reminding us of the new tasks that belong to us. It ought to be the more easy for a conference of this sort to take the point of view with regard to education which should be acceptable to the whole country; and I do not see, for my part, how educational conferences of any kind are to make any progress, unless we come to a common point of view with regard to education. It ought to be possible at any rate for a body like this, representing a homogeneous constituency, to come to a common point of view. I say "homogeneous," because we by our very title represent the colleges of the Middle States, and the schools preparatory to college: not the colleges and the schools, but the colleges and the preparatory schools. It is a question of what leads up to higher education, and a question of what higher education is, which we are concerned in discussing; and therefore it seems to me that we ought to come at some common principle as to what education is for.

Now I am not going to attempt to make sail upon that great ocean : I am not going to attempt to instruct you as to what education is ; but I want to offer one suggestion which does not contain too philosophic a content and is not too disputable. I want to make this suggestion : that we should regard education, not as a means for enabling the pupil to find an occupation, but as a means for enabling the pupil to find himself.

Just as our own sense of identity depends upon our knowledge of who we were yesterday and what we were yesterday ; and our own knowledge of our place in the physical universe depends upon our knowing where the other things in the universe are, so that we can get our bearings with regard to them : so, it seems to me, the object of education is to enable us thus to orient ourselves—to determine which is the East and which is the West, to determine our geographical position in the history of human life and of the human mind ; to know how we are related to the thinking that has been done and the thinking that is being done—to the things that have been done and the things that remain to be done.

That, it seems to me, is the common object of education—to release the faculties for any use they may turn out to be serviceable for ; so that we are dealing not with the fortunes of our pupils but with their spirits, with their understandings, with their apprehensions. If that be the object of education—why, then, every question of study, of the subject-matter of study, and of the group studied, has some standard by which to be judged, as far as we have any standard ; because the standard of practical serviceability is so various that it is not one standard but a thousand, and unless we have some one standard we have no single means of assessment and judgment in respect of the subjects or the methods of study.

Now in Princeton this is our conception of education ; and the service that you will do us will be the service of enabling us to judge by your discussions just where we all stand with regard to a common task ; because we are here in a period of inquiry and we believe, at any rate, that we have the open mind. While we are sure of our object I believe we are entirely teachable as to the means of attainment. We have a conviction as to what we are about ; but we are very modest in respect of our judgment as to whether we are going after it in the right way.

You may easily conceive, therefore, that it is with peculiar

pleasure that I welcome to this place, in the name of the University, a body of men and women who can give, out of a rich experience, the suggestions which will enable us to know which is the road to the place we seek. I therefore extend to President Backus, and to the association through him, the freedom of the place—knowing by your looks that you will not make too free—and hope that you will regard us and it as at your disposal throughout your session.

RESPONSE.

DR. TRUMAN J. BACKUS, PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

President Wilson: The members of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland wished much that this annual meeting of the Association might be held at Princeton. The earnestness of our desire to come may have helped bring the invitation. Now that we are here we are happy indeed to be in a place ideal in every appointment, to which we are welcomed by the generous words you have just spoken.

We are familiar with the traditions of the old College of New Jersey, we had known the achievements of the University of Princeton, we had seen the brilliant movements of the last three or four years at Princeton. All these were allurements to us. They made us wish to tread the walks where the brilliant thinkers of Princeton do their thinking. We wished to see you, and I hope that it will not be amiss for me to add that this company of patriotic citizens, regardless of their several political creeds, find a pleasure in being in the town where the pre-eminent private citizen of America makes his home. We beg that you, Mr. President, will make yourself at home with us, and that as much of the time as your leisure and your inclination may permit you will be with us, and we especially hope that the voices of Princeton men may be heard in our discussions,—discussions now to be opened by Dr. Julius Sachs, the head master of Dr. Sachs's School for Girls, in the Borough of Manhattan in Greater New York. Dr. Sachs will speak of "The Modern Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges."

THE MODERN LANGUAGES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

DR. JULIUS SACHS, PRINCIPAL OF DR. SACHS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

The great questions that concern both school and college, the burning questions of the educational world, are obviously limited in number; three times within a dozen years modern language teaching has held a prominent place on our program. Whatever our opinions ten or twelve years ago, the fear of inconsistency should certainly not deter us from formulating anew our latter-day judgments. Then we argued in rather academic fashion the general value of German and French in the college and school curriculum. To-day the more direct inquiry confronts us—*how* should they be taught to make them really effective? The question is pertinent, for general dissatisfaction with the results exists, certainly as far as the secondary school is concerned, and it is this phase of the question I am to consider.

We have listened in the last few years to commendations of many features of our secondary educational scheme by foreign visitors. Have you discovered in any utterances, down to the recent reports of the Moseley Commission, praise of our modern language teaching?

Who teaches our modern languages and how are they taught? The great majority of our modern language teachers are still foreigners, cultivated men and women frequently, many of them not trained as teachers of language, the very fewest of them trained in the methods that language teaching to foreigners implies. Their acquaintance with English is rarely broad. Of the genius of our language, of the point of view from which our pupils regard the foreign tongue, they can hardly form a just estimate. The minority is represented by native American teachers whose acquaintance with the language they undertake to teach has been usually gained in our college courses, and has rarely been supplemented by residence in France or Germany. They carry into secondary school teaching the doctrine which is all too prevalent in the modern language departments of our colleges, that the end of language study is literary and linguistic scholarship, and that the capacity

to speak the language is altogether insignificant in value, compared with the power to read and thoroughly comprehend it. Both classes of teachers are, as a rule, imbued with the idea that the disciplinary value of this study can only be secured by constant drill in grammar, and by unquestioning acceptance of its rules on the authority of the manual. Recognizing that a mass of abstract grammar without illustration from concrete material is dry and irksome, they turn to their grammar-texts for aid, and they will find almost without exception the grammatical principles applied to isolated, unrelated sentences. A formal training this unquestionably is, but formal in the most objectionable use of the word, because unreal, uninteresting. It is *not* incompatible with thoroughness to make our instruction interesting, nor need one eschew grammatical instruction altogether in condemning one method of imparting it.

Our secondary school method proceeds, then, as rapidly as possible, to the reading and translation of French and German texts. There are undertaken occasional renderings of connected discourse into the foreign tongue; little emphasis, however, is laid on the enunciation of the foreign language by *viva voce* reading, and attempts at conversation in the foreign idiom are sporadic. The quantitative goal of the college demand, the translation of four or six hundred pages of text within the prescribed time limit, looms up so insistently before teacher and pupil that the consideration, what may our pupils have gained of the actual language, becomes secondary.

It will not do to dwell on all the shortcomings of this system. Let us only consider the character of some of the *best* material offered for reading and translation. The reading books published in conjunction with the best grammars are written for high school pupils or college beginners indiscriminately. Is it possible to make selections judiciously that will be as appropriate for maturer students as for adolescents, with their limited mental horizon? Within the covers of a moderate-sized reader, say in German, the selections advance from simplest elementary prose and simplest lyrics to extracts from serious historical writers, to poems of a more or less *reflective* character, to a classical drama of Lessing, Schiller or Goethe. What capacity has the first or second year student of German in the secondary school to master the thought in a literary work that is so lofty and unusual in its diction, so far removed from colloquial

speech that the German secondary school does not handle it with its students until *they* are sixteen or seventeen years of age? Again, examine the substitutes that are employed by many modern language teachers *for* these readers; they are, if possible, worse; I mean the novels, novelettes, sketches of representative foreign authors, edited for the benefit of the American pupil. Let anyone who studies the reading lists in foreign languages adopted in our schools say that we usually choose wisely! I select one from many publications to establish my meaning. Suderman is considered one of the greatest living exponents of the realistic school in Germany. A masterpiece of his, *Frau Sorge*, has been edited, and is extensively used. It is distinguished by wonderful lucidity of style, by a painfully true portrayal of life; this may palliate in the eyes of adults for its depressing moral atmosphere; it is a picture gray in gray, and for our high school pupils pre-eminently unfit. And similar errors of judgment have led, both in the French and German lists of our schools, to the advocacy of books that are attractive to the teacher by reason of their literary merit, but for other reasons pedagogically undesirable. Since official publications are open to public criticism, we may subject to this test the printed list of readings put forth for the New York high schools. They are probably no worse a compilation than is offered elsewhere, and the general syllabus of instruction to which they are attached is, I am free to say, distinctly more rational than the courses generally advocated; yet here are recommended for the elementary reading of one and the same year books as divergent as Leander's *Träume-reien*, fireside stories written for children, and Heyse's *L'Arrabiata*, a character study hot with the passion of southern Europe. In the intermediate course there follow each other directly in the list Hauff's "Das Kalte Herz," a simple, romantic tale, and von Sybel's historical essays, "Die Erhebung Europas gegen Napoleon I," about as suitable in their juxtaposition as would be for an English student Hawthorne's *Grandfather's Chair* and an essay by Emerson, or, to a Greek student, Xenophon and Pindar.

Desultoriness is the *one* grievous shortcoming in our modern language teaching; another, an excessive ambition, is prevalent in most of our secondary school work. Our teachers should not attempt to teach literary spirit, literary criticism.

Their besetting sin is trying to dignify their work by pretentiousness.¹ They over-estimate the intellectual receptivity of their pupils and hurry them into the study of classical masterpieces. It is injurious to the pupil, to his true valuation of the spirit of the foreign tongue, to bring him face to face with a tragedy of Corneille, Racine, Voltaire, with a drama of Schiller or Goethe, when he is still wrestling with the fundamental concepts of grammar, when he is obliged to piece together by the aid of the dictionary the barest outline of the author's thought. It is idle to expect literary appreciation of a foreign masterpiece under such conditions. Do our teachers not feel the intricacies of rhetoric, the close argumentation, in these pieces? Do they not know what difficulties of thought these works present, even to the native student? I would go a step further. If it be our intention, through our study of French or German literature, to interpret the specific national thought of the people who use those languages (and surely this should be the aim), then works that have attained to the rank of classics often serve that purpose less than others of a more modest value.

A work becomes a classic because it transcends the national bounds and appeals to the world-wide expérience of the race. Cinna is less characteristically French than "Le Monde ou l'on s'ennuie," and Goethe's Iphigenie less specifically German than Moser's military comedy "Der Veilchenfresser." The vocabulary, furthermore, in classical works, and this applies especially to French, is deliberately meagre.² None but words of a certain weight and dignity are admitted. Of course we are by no means to banish the greatest works, but let us not degrade them by service that inferior works will more satisfactorily render.

The sum total, then, of my criticism on prevailing modern language instruction in our *schools* (remember that I leave the judgment of college attainments to the college men) would be this: our instruction is just what our foreign critics have intimated. They speak of it as antiquated, barren, with scarcely

¹What we need is what Dr. Chambers has recently urged, an abundance of easy texts, stories written for the purpose or simplified from existing tales.—*School Review*, June, 1904, p. 479.

²W. Münch, "Ueber Menschenart und Jugendbildung," p. 264.

any trace of the enlightened modern system.¹ If no radical improvement on such work can be initiated, the modern language work in the schools will presently fall into still further disrepute. A change, however, can be made, one that will not be accomplished in a day or a year, but toward which we shall approximate with each step in the right direction. Whence is guidance to come in this dilemma?

It has become the fashion in much of our educational work to spurn any aid from foreign experiences. We must not foist foreign methods, such is the watchword, upon our individual attainments. But a good thought that we can adapt and adopt is good, whatever its origin. And here in language work we have scored a complete failure. Let us, therefore, see what others are doing and profit by it, not by indiscriminate appropriation of their method, but by judicious adaptation. The leaders of educational thought abroad have been engrossed for the last fifteen years in developing and perfecting a scheme of modern language instruction that has been accepted by the very nations that have been the foremost advocates of accurate linguistic training. This reform, which one of the highest English educational authorities calls "one of the most noteworthy events in the sphere of teaching since the Renaissance,"² has conquered its way into official recognition at the hands of the educational experts in Germany, France, Sweden, Austria, Belgium, Italy, has, in fact, promoted marked modifications in *all* language teaching in those countries. With us, hardly a ripple indicates knowledge of this movement, and yet the Modern Language Section of the Committee of Ten pointed out in 1892 the glaring deficiencies of our teaching, and Professor Rambeau, in an address before the Modern Language Association in 1893, revealed in eloquent, in convincing language the path toward reform. His appeal fell upon unsympathetic ears. The will, quite as much as the capacity, to adopt a great innovation, was manifestly lacking.

The new method is not the "natural method," whose advocates claim that they would teach a foreign language as children learn their own. The flagrant impossibility of accomplishing this has obscured the merits of this other system that

¹Moseley Report, pp. 133, 168 et passim.

²Findlay, "Principles of Class Teaching," p. 200, note.

reaches out for an ideal of larger cultural experience. Call it, if you will, the new method, the reform method, the European method; this is the method that has come to stay. It will be modified, perfected, but in its fundamental concepts, it will be the basis of *our* modern language work too, unless we are prepared to remain hopelessly in arrears. Speaking of this method, Sir Michael Sadler says, "The study of modern languages has been taken up so enthusiastically because, taught as living languages, they may be made the instrument of a new and much needed type of liberal education. The movement is really part of a revival of the humanities in education, as against the sterilizing influences of mere utilitarianism."¹. Our future teaching of modern languages, if it is to emerge from its present low estate, involves two distinct factors, I take it: First, a definite acceptance of the principles that underlie the reform method and the embodiment of these principles in the requisite manuals of instruction; secondly, an adequate training of teachers to apply the principles by the aid of the manuals, as well as by their independent didactic ability.

As to the *principles*, they may be formulated thus:

1. *Language* is essentially and primarily speech, hence all systematic instruction in the living tongues must be based on the spoken idiom. The immediate aim is to enable the learner to understand speech in the foreign idiom and to use it as a direct instrument of thought. The pupils acquire gradually a vocabulary in speaking constantly about the objects which surround them and the matters connected with their daily life; in these exercises the native language is to be used only when absolutely necessary. The nature of these preliminary exercises demands that for a considerable period the main work should be done in the class-room, home work being only supplementary and in the nature of a review; that the teacher should himself have a correct pronunciation and know how to impart it; that he should, furthermore, know how to develop vocabulary; how to fix by skillful questioning and varied repetition the relations of words as sentence parts, how to introduce new grammatical forms without labelling them as such. The pupils' answers are to be given in complete sentences, that repeat at first the very words of the question; this is considered

¹Special Reports on Educational Subjects (London), vol. 9, p. 70.

an effective means of familiarizing the pupils with a given vocabulary; gradually there are substituted the *equivalents* of words employed in the questions; striking idiomatic phrases are introduced and repeated, and thus the vocabulary grows.

2. *Grammar* is to be acquired, but not as a logical system; it is to be gradually and empirically established from a large series of individual facts, the rule being always subsidiary to the concrete instance. Analysis and induction are to form the basis of grammatical information. The questioning of the teacher must lead to the observation of the grammatical fact. "The mind," says Widgery, "must become impregnated with the normal types; this requires a wealth of illustration, so that from the many examples the rule may spring up, as it were, by itself. All that militates against it must be kept in the background. As our grammars are constructed, is it not natural that our pupils do not realize the relative importance of rule and exception? The latter seems of more consequence than the former—in fact, these exceptions are a psychological monstrosity; they represent so often relics from an ancient period of the language and have little bearing on prevailing usage." Irregularities of language cause in fact little difficulty, if explained as they are met with.

3. The reading text should form the basis of the whole system of teaching. Out of it should grow the exercises in pronunciation that include individual sounds, as well as sentence intonation, the exercises in connected oral speech and in written production as well as in practical grammar, every selection being made so as to afford progressively insight into certain grammatical phenomena; the reader to be at first simple, to present material illustrating the daily life and experience of the foreign people, their manners, customs, history, industries, political life, and leading up to a consideration of the spiritual life and thought revealed in their poets, orators, historians. The preparation of such readers would be one of the most vital and significant features of the whole system.

It is clear that the acquisition of the ability to speak is the most prominent feature in these principles. What of the criticisms by the opponents of the system? Let the experience of the classroom answer. They urge that the time available in each lesson, divided by the number of pupils in the class, allows no substantial participation of each pupil in the oral exercises.

The objectors fail to realize what good teaching can accomplish. *Every* pupil shares during the entire period in the work, if the teacher is clever and brings intense activity to bear upon the whole body. The pupil hears constantly the colloquial use of the language, and his mental activities are kept intent for the answer that may be demanded of *him* at any moment. In a properly conducted class *everyone* is under recitation *all* the time. That is what the art of teaching should accomplish—or does your student in geometry think mathematically only during the fragment of the hour when he is called upon to recite? A second criticism of this oral language work compares it to the attainments that the nursery governess inculcates. This insinuation may well be dropped; the reform method is *not* the old natural method. It insures, in addition to comparative ease in the use of the foreign idiom, a greater firmness and accuracy in the application of grammatical principles; in fact, it is particularly *strong* in creating grammatical accuracy, and it arouses an infinitely greater interest in foreign life and thought, whether they are manifested in literary productions or in the passing records of the day. It lays stress upon the training of the intellect, which it accomplishes by widening the sphere of interest; it involves, besides imitative ability, a number of other capacities—mental grasp, memory, analogy and comparison, a discriminating sense, both of form and sound. After a most thorough-going investigation into the merits of the reform method, the experts in the Prussian Ministry of Education accept as points definitely established that this new method is able to secure as valuable grammatical insight, as substantial acquaintance with the literary spirit of the foreign language, as the old, and that it has added, beyond this, a previously unknown interest in the language and the life of the foreign people by a training that rests upon persistent, conscious effort. It meets, therefore, both the theoretic and the practical demands that may be made on the school. Such positive declaration reached by expert opinion that moves deliberately to conclusions has swept aside several favorite dogmas of those who stood for the supremacy of formal grammatical training. It is recognized that the control of one's thoughts in a new medium of speech involves, to an unusual degree, concentration and an intense activity of mind which makes at least as great calls on the power of logical and formal thought as any other

form of exercise. Secondly, there has disappeared the old-time prejudice that *instinctive feeling for language* is in antagonism to grammar. It is now accepted as its natural ally. To-day the reform method dominates educational opinion on the Continent; only in England can we find conditions analogous to our own. It is manifestly from the bitterness of his soul that Coulton in his "English Public Schools and Public Needs" pillories the English head masters for their defence of a system "so Chinese in its elaborate stupidity as our present method of teaching modern languages."

Of what avail is it, I say, to insist on objections that good teaching has shown to be futile? The adoption of these principles is strongly to be urged. It does not forestall individual preferences on some of the mooted points involved. As in Germany and France, so here, we may differ on minor points. We may advocate the teaching of pronunciation by scientific phonetics or by the imitative process; we may see fit to discard completely or employ at times our native tongue in teaching the foreign language. The matter is still at issue and must be determined by physiological and psychological investigations that have not yet been adequately undertaken. We may use extensively or within closely prescribed limits the rich fund of concrete material furnished by the "conversation pictures," as some one has translated *Anschauungsbilder*. We may or may not in the interest of an intuitive feeling for the new language (*Sprachgefühl*) find it desirable to avoid for a considerable time, or altogether, verbal *translation* from one language into the other. In written work we may or may not apply the doctrine of Walther that free efforts in composition, based on imitation of the spoken and written language, without conscious application of grammatical rules, will insure idiomatic writing. All these matters, in which individual capacity, preference, experience, will have their way, do not impair the fundamental propositions.

The very slightest difficulty is likely to be occasioned by the preparation of a body of teaching material; a word or two will explain the situation. For both of the foreign languages that we must consider, models are available that can be adopted. The text-books prepared by the Germans for the acquisition of French and those elaborated by French, Belgian and Scandinavian teachers for German are at once a guide and a key to

the practical interpretation of the principles. A study of what has been undertaken elsewhere, of the exhaustive literature on the subject, fascinating in its details, will aid in creating the material for our special needs.

We have by natural advance reached the consideration of the teacher. He is assumed to be in the very storm centre of the new study. His work must precede for some time the use of the text-book. As Widgery puts it, "He must be the walking mouthpiece, grammar, dictionary, all in one"; must be content to *give* for some time before he gets anything in return. He must be accurate in his use of terms, must know exactly what the attainment of each lesson has been. Complete mastery of each step is essential, otherwise there can be no close sequence, no logical continuity, which is here far more important than in the old method. To maintain this mastery of detail from week to week by a disciplining of one's memory, or by a conscientious written record, to pass it on as the available basis of further work to a succeeding teacher, is no simple effort. That it demands, even in the earliest stages, a most careful preparation of the daily task by the teacher, is clear. The conditions of this new method stimulate the initiative and inventiveness of the teacher to the utmost. The plan, the scheme of progressive advance, must be largely influenced by his individual capacity; he ought to combine facility in the spoken language, mastery of the life and thought of the foreign people, with highly developed pedagogical ability.

Every modern language teacher of Germany, according to the new method, is primarily a philologist (*Neusprachler*), thoroughly trained in linguistic science; in fact, the rise of the reform method is directly the effect of the teaching of modern philology at the universities since 1890. Obviously, then, one can be a leader in scientific research of language and yet accept the new method of language acquisition. It has been found in practice that by this method there is more abundant occasion to develop a theory of word formation, a feeling for language kinship, for the relationships and distinctions in synonyms than formerly; and it seems no unworthy application of philology, thus to enrich the pupil's power of speech and of mental differentiation.

Teachers thus equipped, you will say, are not available here and now, therefore the attempt to put the new method to the

test is idle. We may take comfort again in the experiences of our European friends. According to the late Dr. Waetzold, the educational experts of Germany recommended the new method to their teachers at a time when the larger number of them were not adequately trained, especially in speaking capacity, to carry out the ideals of the system. But the principle was accepted, and the teachers promptly diminished the gap between ideal and actual attainments. And another authority of the first rank makes this suggestive remark: "In all new undertakings the persons qualified to carry them out successfully develop from the undertaking itself." We cannot, must not wait until we have our teachers trained to the new requirement. If we are convinced of its truth, and insist on its adoption, there will arise numbers of ambitious teachers who will take up the new problems and will, according to their best light, apply what capacity they possess. As they perfect their methods and increase their own resources of speech and thought in the foreign tongue, they establish the stepping stones for the more ideally prepared teachers of the next generation.

Who are they to be and how is their preparation to be accomplished? Our modern language teachers of the future must be native Americans. Both in Germany and France the sway of the French maître and the English master has been discontinued. A pupil learns a foreign language most effectively from one who is his countryman and a trained teacher, and who has himself been compelled to master its difficulties. There intervenes another practical consideration. If we do not train modern language teachers from our midst, we shall presently lack even *foreign* teachers of any but the most mediocre attainments. There is no reason, in view of the great present demand for foreign language teachers abroad, why a German or a French teacher who has acquired a speaking knowledge of English should migrate to America when his command of English gives him an enviable advantage at home. The inferior quality of recent foreign accessions to our teaching body admits of no other explanation. Even now, cases are not infrequent in which teachers, after a brief experience in this country, or in England, return to advantageous positions on the Continent.

A great field of teaching opportunity, then, that has hitherto been slighted is open to our college graduates. To the thoroughly trained American students of modern languages with a

three-fold training on the purely linguistic side, in the practice of speaking, and in professional teaching insight, we must look for our future teachers of the living modern languages.

And here we touch upon the college methods of teaching these subjects. Let the colleges, if they see fit, persevere with the main body of their students in teaching almost exclusively reading knowledge and in promoting what is called scientific insight into the language. The needs of the future teachers of the subject are of a broader kind and require special provisions, special courses. What has been done in this respect since in 1892 the modern language section of the Committee of Ten formulated this judgment:¹ "There seems to be at present no institution where persons intending to teach German, French or Spanish in our elementary or secondary schools can receive the special preparation that they need?" Philological seminaries in Romance and Germanic philology in which the historic development of the language engrosses the attention, furnish but one side of the language teacher's equipment and are incomplete even along this line, since the study of the historic growth of these languages usually stops short of the present, as though the present were not as much an index to the past as vice versa. We need not go as far as some, and demand special *institutions* for their training, like the unique seminary in Modern French at Geneva, to which teachers from all parts of Europe flock; but one or two courses should be specially outlined for them and assigned to an instructor or professor whose sound linguistic training has not prevented his interest in the living modern language, one who uses it with perfect freedom and insists on its constant use by his students. Of the *college* instructor we may certainly demand that such conversational exercises shall not be aimless, rambling; that, on the contrary, with distinct recognition of the end in view, they shall develop every phase of insight that may be evolved from the language and literature, the political, geographical, artistic conditions of the foreign people, as well as its purely literary inspiration. One of our own foremost Germanists, Professor von Jagemann, justifies such use of the foreign language in the classroom:² "Not that it gives to the student," he says, "a

¹Report Committee of Ten, p. 103.

²"Methods of Teaching Modern Languages" (Heath), p. 125

speaking knowledge, but that it leads to a more thorough general acquaintance with the language and a more intelligent appreciation of its literature." Such an instructor as I have in mind should, in addition to conversational ease, possess the pedagogic ability to direct the work so as to further the specific ends of teaching. Under his guidance would be discussed such problems as have been indicated—phonetics, translation from and into the foreign language, the method of developing grammatical facts inductively from reading selections, the proper selection and classification of reading material, the extent to which the illustrative facts of foreign customs and institutions should be introduced; finally, the art of presentation.

But our future teacher would still lack pedagogic experience. We are demanding of our higher class of teachers in other branches that they observe model teaching in their departments before they themselves undertake their own novitiate. America furnishes no opportunity for such observation in French and German teaching at present. Let a part, then, of the language teachers' professional training consist in a year of serious observation in Germany or France, and let the evidence of careful study (by written reports and critical notes on individual phases observed) be accepted as such training. This visit, controlled by serious purpose, would, first, enlarge their speaking capacity to an extent unattainable at home. They would acquire what is an important test of fluency, idiomatic modulation, and they would have occasion to observe in the schools abroad how pedagogic ability and enthusiasm, directed to the establishment of a common doctrine, move along lines of individual preference to that end. *Descriptions* of method can never be an adequate substitute for actual observation of methods. They would return to us with the conviction that language teaching is not a perfunctory art, that it makes the severest demands upon the teacher; that scholarship, a high degree of scholarship, is a prerequisite demanded in Europe of all teachers, but that beyond this, the broadest intellectual sympathy with whatever makes for culture is involved; and that the crowning achievement of these teachers lies in their acquaintance, not only with philology, but with psychology and pedagogy as well, and in their power to subordinate all their own attainments to the pedagogic necessities. They will be somewhat surprised, but it will be a wholesome surprise, that

everyone is expected to know *what* to teach; equally surprised to find that university professors, school principals and teachers are contributing to the vital question *how* to teach.

The secret of the success of the present language method in Europe lies in part only in its correctness of method, partly in the fact that it cannot be carried out without the unfailing devotion of the teacher. His heart must be in his work; he knows that on himself personally depends the progress of the class. Exercise books, texts, guides, even though the best and most methodical, develop monotony. The teacher alone can gauge whether the interest is maintained. Freshness, variety of treatment, alertness, both physical and mental, the supreme capacity to collect the separate details of information into substantial results and rouse the power of new acquisition, all of these, part and parcel of a strong, inspiring and attractive personality, are contributory to the success of the method. Such teaching is not easy, is, if you will, exhausting, but teaching that does not bring into play the whole personality of the teacher does not deserve the name. From the observation of such work as I have outlined, in classrooms that are alive with the tingling enthusiasm of the teacher and the instantaneous responsiveness of the class, our young candidates would bring back with them two general results as a perpetual guidance to themselves and to their less fortunate colleagues in other departments who have *not* been privileged to see keen, uplifting teaching. They would denounce for the teaching of every subject all that smacked of deadly routine, and would proclaim the infinite superiority of the live teacher over the slave of the text-book. They would appreciate that "it is attenuated and impoverished teaching that neglects the direct influence that the teacher can exert over the young minds."¹ What a consummation that would be, if from our modern language teaching in the secondary schools which is at present a very step-child in standing and in accomplishment, there issued the overthrow of the supremacy of the text-book, that refuge of incapacity and indolence, and the recognition of it as a valued servant, but a vicious master! To me the path to improvement in our modern language teaching seems clearly defined:

¹J. E. Lloyd, in "Spencer's Aim and Practice of Teaching" (London), p. 151.

in the adoption of the principles enunciated, in the radical change of our teaching methods, and in the proper training of expert teachers, lies the hope of a regeneration.

THE PRESIDENT: Dean Thomas F. Crane, of Cornell University, who was to have read the second paper on this discussion on modern languages in the secondary schools and colleges, is absent from the country. He has left his paper, prepared for this occasion; and we are very fortunate in having with us Professor Charles DeGarmo, who has kindly consented to read the Dean's paper. Professor DeGarmo.

THE MODERN LANGUAGES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

DEAN THOMAS F. CRANE, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

Mr. President: When I began to prepare this paper I refreshed my memory by looking over the literature of the subject which has accumulated during the last twenty years and which is to be found in a great number of reports of Educational Associations, discussions at their meetings, and in scattered essays and papers. I confess I was amazed at the extent and variety of the material when I considered that the subject was such a comparatively recent one. It also seemed to me that almost every aspect of the question had been fully discussed and I was irresistibly reminded of the anecdote of the Scotchman who was passing the Kirk one Sabbath day and called out to the sexton, who was standing on the porch: "Is the minister through, Sandy?" and Sandy replied: "He's through, but he hasn't stopped." I sometimes think in this country in our feverish haste we do not allow our experiments time enough to be able to judge fairly of their results, but like impatient children we are forever digging up our seeds to see whether they have sprouted. I am impelled to this reflection when I consider the changes which have taken place in the educational system of American colleges since I graduated from this spot in 1864—changes vast in extent and great in number, changes affecting both subject and method. And I am also disturbed when I see what uncertainty still prevails

in regard to some of the most discussed topics, and think I detect symptoms of reaction against reforms which I believe have not yet been allowed time enough to justify themselves.

I can hardly hope to contribute anything new to the subject of the present discussion, but I can give the impressions of one who has been a teacher of the modern languages throughout the whole period during which they have been the subject of serious consideration, for I began my work in Cornell University the very year it opened in 1868, and my labors have been uninterrupted since then.

When I entered Princeton University (then the College of New Jersey) in 1860, no modern language was required for admission there or elsewhere in the United States, and not one hour of instruction in either language was given in the college course. It is true that an opportunity was afforded to students to study French and German, and it is a pleasant duty for me to acknowledge in this spot my debt of gratitude to my instructor in French, Professor Henry C. Cameron, whose accomplished son is now a regular professor of French in the University. I imagine that the same state of affairs prevailed all over the country, for although Harvard possessed a famous chair of modern languages founded in 1819, no modern language was required for admission to that institution until 1875. It is true that the distinguished incumbents of that chair, Mr. Ticknor, Mr. Longfellow and Mr. Lowell, conferred great glory upon American scholarship and literature, but I do not find that the example of Harvard was followed by other colleges or that the serious study of the modern languages in this country was sensibly promoted by it.

I should not allude to these historical details were it not that the status of modern languages in American colleges and the method of instruction cannot be understood without a reference to the mode of their introduction into the curriculum of study. As my purpose is not primarily historical I shall speak in a general way and not confine myself to precise dates.

The first impulse to the serious study of the modern languages in American colleges sprang, I take it, from the establishment of scientific schools about 1850, of which the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University (1852) is an excellent type. In these scientific schools no Greek was required for admission and less Latin than for admission to the college.

The modern languages were pursued for a part of the course, but at first were not required for admission. The Sheffield Scientific School even discouraged the preliminary study of French and German, saying that both would be begun in the school. In these scientific schools the study of the modern languages was pursued solely from the utilitarian standpoint, to enable the student to use the necessary works of reference in those languages. This has been the aim ever since in institutions of this kind, and to it has been added the desire to furnish the student with a speaking knowledge of the languages (especially Spanish) valuable for technical professions in the new world.

The second stage in the study of modern languages in this country was when, about 1868, courses, non-technical and semi-classical, were established in American colleges, leading to degrees other than A. B., and not requiring Greek for admission. At first the modern languages were not required for admission but were begun in the college; later they were required as a substitute for the omitted Greek and taught largely from the classical standpoint; and French and German, as college studies, bade fair in this period to become, like Greek, dead languages.

The third and last stage, since 1875, has witnessed the acceptance or requirement of French or German (or French and German) for admission to the classical courses, and the addition of these languages (and to a more limited extent of Italian and Spanish) to the curriculum on a footing of equality with Latin and Greek.

This has been the period of the elective system, of the change in the traditional character of the degree of A. B., and of the *rapprochement* between the colleges and schools resulting in the flexible system of entrance requirements and in the uniformity of the separate units. This period has seen the reports of the Committee of Ten (1893), of the two Committees of Twelve (1898), of the Columbia Conference of 1896 for the application of the definitions in these reports to the statement of college entrance requirements, and last, but not least, the establishment in 1900 of the College Entrance Examination Board.

The above may be considered a *résumé* of the external history of the study of the modern languages during the last forty

stirred, and without an appeal to the emotions literary culture is impossible. I cannot see how college professors of modern languages can rise here and plead that more culture should be derived from their department and at the same time ignore this reformed plan; unless indeed they mean by culture formal discipline and little else. But as we have already noted this plan provides the best of discipline.

I have heard no discrimination made this morning, as should certainly be made, between reading and translating the foreign tongue. The two acts are quite distinct. To an American the ability to read the foreign language is the chief end to be sought; and practice in speaking, while secondary in importance, is an essential aid to this end. Many a student learns many things about French or German but does not learn the language itself. English and the foreign language cannot occupy the mind at the same moment. If we expect ever to secure a valuable culture from the work in modern languages, we must teach the students to read those languages and not be forever translating.

PROFESSOR CALVIN THOMAS, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.—I had not expected to speak this morning; I came here to learn, rather than to participate in the discussion. But since I am asked to speak, I will say a few words.

The views that Dr. Sachs presented in his paper are substantially my own views; and they are, I think, fairly stated to the public in the report of the Committee of Twelve, which has been referred to once or twice in the discussion. When the report was prepared six or seven years ago, we looked over the conditions in the country at large and found those very evils which Dr. Sachs has pointed out in his paper. A report was drawn up which was intended to deal in a practical and sensible way with the whole subject of modern language teaching. The report of the Committee of Twelve has since, to my great satisfaction, considerably influenced the views and the practice of teachers. Now the committee certainly recognized the deficiencies to which the paper of Dr. Sachs called attention. It is quite true that foreign critics of our work find it unsatisfactory; and I believe it to be true that improvement is to come—must come—along the lines of the “reform method,” if we choose to call it by that name.

At the same time I must observe that the "reform method" is not one plain, straightforward method, but a body of doctrine, precepts, opinions not all of which are of equal value.

One thing that did not seem to me quite conclusive in Dr. Sachs' paper was where he attempted to show us that after all it is possible to teach the pupil "conversation" in large classes. Let us grant the desirability. I for one admit fully that every teacher of French or German should be able to speak the language that he attempts to teach, and should be anxious to teach his pupil to speak it, so far as he can; but at the same time he must consider—he *must* consider—the conditions and the possibilities.

Now I must say that I never have met in Germany or in the United States a person who could really speak German—I say German instead of French, because that is the language with which I am most familiar—a person who could really speak German in any proper sense of the term, and who had been taught to do so in school in a large class. And the reason is obvious: it is not enough that pupils be on the alert—that there be a current of electricity passing from teacher to pupil. The ability to speak a foreign language is a matter of technique: it is a matter of infinite wagging of the individual tongue; and this cannot be done vicariously. It is a technique, dependent upon practice, and you cannot give practice enough, when the pupil is a member of a large class meeting four or five times a week. Suppose you were required to teach a person to play the piano, and that your pupil were a member of a class of thirty or thirty-five. You discuss the principles and you call the pupils up one after another to play two or three bars on the instrument in the course of the hour, and the class meets three or four hours in the week, and outside the class-room there is no practice. How long would it be before that pupil would be an expert pianist?

Try the same illustration for any other technique—for type-writing, for telegraphing. The point that I wish to bring out is that no amount of skill on the part of the teacher—no improved methods and no advanced pedagogical ideas—can make it possible to give in the school-room, under the ordinary conditions, an amount of practice sufficient to enable the pupil to use the language with fluency and correctness in conversation. If then you make the ability to converse the main object of

your instruction, you will get but lame results in that line and will be almost sure to miss something else that is highly important.

If we propose to insist upon highly trained teachers who have studied abroad, who themselves speak the languages they wish to teach, and who desire to teach their pupils to speak them by the best methods, we shall have to warn our public that it will involve an increased expenditure for the teaching of the modern languages. The instruction will have to begin earlier and continue longer and the classes will have to be reduced in size. Now, whether that is desirable—whether the conditions in this country are such as to make it important to aim mainly at the ability to speak, is a question which should be discussed by itself. I have no time to touch upon it this morning; for I feel that I have already taken your attention as long as I ought to.

SECOND SESSION

Friday, November 25th, 1904, at 2.30 P. M.

Dr. Joseph Swain, Vice-President, presiding.

IS THE PAYMENT OF TUITION IN THE FREE STATE UNIVERSITY A JUST CHARGE ON THE PUBLIC TREASURY?

PRESIDENT JOHN H. FINLEY, OF THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY
OF NEW YORK.

The affiliated States of this Association are bounded on the east by an ocean inhospitable, (though it carries, as we were told in the beautiful and eloquent address of the president of Princeton, the flavors of the older age in its salt air), and by a confederacy of culture whose generous private endowments of higher education, inherited aversion to taxation, and singleness of point of view put this question beyond the range of their immediate interest; they are bounded on the south by a group of struggling Commonwealths, whose long empty and slowly fill-

ing treasuries have kept them from realizing their educational ideals learned of Washington and Jefferson; and on the west by the great remnant of this Republic, in each of whose giant States, tuition in the free State universities has been paid for so many years and out of such willing hands that the question here proposed would be there purely academic. In New England the interrogatory would be converted into the statement that such payment need not be made; in the South that it cannot be made as they wish it might; and in the West that it is made; so, why debate it?

But in the territory of this Association, the typical American states, the verb still stands before its subject in doubt and indecision. It is the zone of pertinency and of varying barometer. It may properly be called the buffer-state where the conservatism of far New England, the ambitious economic need of the South, and the ready, valiant optimism of the trans-Alleghanies are held in compromise. There is no claim of the sufficiency of the spasmodic, though splendid, provision of private philanthropy, for university presidents are ever crying for more endowments; there is no lack of common means though much of it escapes the assessor, and yet provision has not been so generally made that the question proposed rises in this region into the happy category and rarer atmosphere of the purely "academic."

Indeed in some parts of this middle field, especially in the urban centers, the increasing need demands debate of those who have hopes of democracy in their hearts, and its interests in their hands. And there is progress in the direction of such an answer, of such a decision as the optimism of the West has made. Last week I was present at the dedication of a high school building in one of the boroughs of New York, the fourth to be dedicated within a year in that city where until recently the only public secondary school for boys was the old Free Academy and subsequently the preparatory department of the College of the City of New York. This is perhaps indicative of the direction in which public sentiment is moving, for while this is provision which has long been made in some parts of the East and was made in the West before the last of the prairie flowers had begun their pilgrimage, from the fields, along the railroads, in the trail of the Indian,—while this provision, though comparatively new in New York, is not extraordinary

in character, it gives promise of the completion of a system meeting the requirements of Huxley's definition of a national system of education, "a ladder which has one end in the gutter and the other in the University." It gives promise that when adequate private provision for higher education is not made, the public will do what the States are doing throughout the West, building free or practically free colleges or universities on these foundations.

The question as proposed is a bit puzzling. I do not know whether it is designed to concede the wisdom and justice of the State's providing the means of tuition and to bring into discussion merely the charging of a tuition fee, or whether State provision and maintenance of higher educational institutions are in issue. I take it the latter. Yet I regret the language of the inquiry, for it seems to impute an unworthy motive to the student who enjoys the privilege of that tuition. The question, in other words, puts the student in jeopardy of his honor. It gives vision of a youth, about whom Wordsworth's prison doors have not begun to close, or who is figuring to keep them open or ajar, standing at the bursar's desk in a State university while debate is held as to whether he is in unjust enjoyment of this public provision. I wish to put the discussion farther back, that we may consider the obligation upon the State, if there be an obligation, undisturbed by the need of the individual—that we may arrive at the duty of democracy, facing the problems of her existence and growth, without giving the student, innocent of anything but a desire for the higher training, a suggestion that he is a parasite or a dependent.

Democracy has let her children go their free ways in the conquest of the continent upon which we live. She has given them as full freedom as their increasing numbers have permitted. She has even helped them with money from her own purse, now and then, to build a railroad or dig a canal. She gave the pioneer title to her lands and she has permitted that title to descend from father to son. She let the intrepid precursor stake out his oil or mining claim and she has confirmed to him and his heirs the millions of treasure that lay beneath it. She has given to the individual perpetual lease of her lands and eternal franchise to most of her resources. Generous mother that she is she has kept little

for herself. She has exacted only slight revenues for her own support and their common good. Wise mother that she is she has given every stimulus to individual enterprise on the part of her children even at the risk of great individual inequality.

And she has let the inequalities of fortune multiply, for she has let one generation bequeath its possessions unhindered to the next with only the toll of a slight inheritance tax. How great that material bequest and heritage is, the volumes of the census recently published intimate. If it were equally distributed there would fall to each man, woman and child some hundreds of dollars and some few cents, as his material dole or hers from the great fortunes of the past. Whether, if it were so distributed, it would come back to the same hands that now held it or to as few, it is not worth while to discuss here and now. The present individualized industrial and social system may or may not be the best, yet its inequalities are best to be levelled up or down, not alone (if in any considerable measure) by cutting off the tops of the hills and filling in depressions, but by building up human machines and cultivating human spirits that are indifferent to inequalities. The common life is to be bettered not so much by the more nearly equal distribution of the tangible gifts of the past to the present, however desirable that may be, as by the more generous apportionment of its intangible gifts—by the bequest to each individual of a larger portion of that territory whose boundaries those who teach and study are pushing out ever into the once forbidden land of the unknown.

For this our democracy is heir not only to the material acres which the ages of time have thrust up here between the seas and to which "destiny" has recently added islands beyond. It is no mere fiction of imagination which reckons as a part of its territory that great estate, now invisible nor subject to the measurement of degrees of latitude and longitude, which the past has gathered of human experience. A part of that estate is transmitted in the human physical organism itself, though we are assured by biologists that those of one generation are not able to transmit their several "acquired characteristics" to those who come after them. But whether "acquired characteristics" be transmitted independently of human government, or not, there is certainly a vast territory that is not inherited by the

individual,—that comes under cultivation and into fruitfulness only by the medium of some sort of teaching, either of parent, neighbor, book, paper, speech or teacher. It is that territory which democracy must somehow manage to hold and develop, if she is to keep herself and her children out of the poor house of nations or the cemetery of disappointed hopes.

She must hold that territory as she has held the public lands upon her western frontiers for the free or practically free occupancy of her growing and more ambitious family; a fenceless field in whose conquest and cultivation the eager of mind may find the opportunity of a larger service or of escape from the confinements and servitude of a narrow ancestral lot which has by nature fallen to them. I do not know where to find more fit expression for, or how to visualize more clearly, the opportunity and the consequent obligations that are upon democracy to educate in the highest and broadest sense of the term her sons and daughters, than in this figure of the fields.

The keeping of this free territory upon her borders is the best relief for the discontent of congestion, for the hopelessness of ignorance and for the despair of finding noble employment. It gives opportunity for the constant passing from the narrow, skyless, circumscribed lot of mere livelihood, to the wider horizons of life and of hope. To be sure, private philanthropy in the education of others, and private wealth in the education of its own, will give that same aid to those whom they reach, will put and do put thousands out upon those fields or on the way to them. But there are many thousands more, even with this splendid private provision (and especially in the great cities of our Republic), who can never have the remotest chance of coming into sight of this more sparsely settled country and of becoming leaders and men of real achievement,—who are held by circumstance within walls they cannot beat down nor scale.

It will be said, I know, that every worthy youth will somehow find the way of his freedom, to the enlargement of his estate, if he but have the will; that may have been true in this Republic once, but it certainly is not true now when millions have means which yield little more than the bare livelihood; millions among whom there are thousands or perhaps tens of thousands who, with an opportunity of a higher education before them, would get as much for themselves and bring as

much to the benefit of their city or country, as many who are independent of material restraint or who can afford to accept the generous charitable provision of a private institution. In company with Mr. Bryce a few days ago, I saw that daily procession of immigrants, who, as he puts it, were stepping up from Europe into America. Over six thousand were to be landed that day, though I was told the machinery of inspection and distribution would allow the disposition of not more than five thousand. But what if the machinery of education be not geared to the machinery of that immigration bureau! If we pack these people away into the caves of our great cities and give them no passport to the best things, to those fields which I have described!

It has been said again and again that it is only the few who should be educated in what we call the higher learning. I cannot admit this. I am, indeed, apprehensive of an overstocking of the market with certain types of Bachelors of Arts and Science and Philosophy, who, as the president of a great street railway system, said to me a few days ago, wish to capitalize their education as soon as they get out. But a "bachelor" meant originally a manager of an estate, and if that estate be truth, and education teach the truth and lead men out to these estates, there cannot be too many "bachelors"—too many managers.

But assuming that it were best after all that few should go up and out into the fields into which education leads, can we be complacently certain that the present distribution of wealth among individuals and institutions is the best basis of the distribution of the opportunities of higher education? Do all the minds worthy of this higher culture dwell in the clay that chances to-day to have the means of this improvement?

In spite of my individualism in material, tangible things, perhaps because of it, I believe in this equalization of opportunity in intangible things, and not for the individual alone who comes into the opportunity; it will provide a higher and safer individualism. Indeed it is to be, perhaps, a greater safeguard of our institutions,—this sharing of rich and poor alike in the heritage of the things that are beyond the things of mere livelihood.

If it be urged that there is in the public provision the peril:

of promoting dependence, it is to be answered that the peril of undermining independence cannot be great where the hardship of the free acquisition is so severe; and if such an abstraction be not a satisfying answer, then there is the concrete evidence of the graduate lists of the score and more of Free State Universities. I doubt if any private institution can show a sturdier or less parasitical body of graduates than those whose tuition the States have considered a just charge against their treasuries. And I fear we who have received our tuition in private institutions, paying for one-third or one-fifth the cost of that tuition (whatever its value), should first cast out the beam from our own eyes, pay back if we can what we each owe our Alma Mater. We may then be able to see more clearly the mote of charitable aid that is in our Free State University brother's eye.

For it is an imaginary mote; it is not an alms that he has of a charitable benefactor; it is a privilege merely which he enjoys out of the common right, to fit himself to serve his city, his State, his country the more efficiently; it is but a free clear title to a field which he can have only by living upon the field,—by clearing it, by ploughing it.

And though many may contribute their tithe of a cent per dollar that few may enjoy that privilege, make good that title,—it is not that they may have larger reward (indeed we are constantly told that we college men are not likely to be as successful in increasing the inequalities of material fortunes as others), but that they may help on the common fortune,—enlarge the borders of democracy. They are not dependent emigrants; they are the representatives of the millions, elected by a fierce competitive examination to go upon this journey toward the frontiers and push them out toward the infinite.

You who have been in what was not long ago our frontier country, now the thickly settled States of the Middle-West, know what a fine spirit of democracy the mingling of all classes bred in those communities in their early days, and how demanding of manhood the standards of their judgments were. They showed no respect to the poor because he was poor and no honor to the rich because he was rich. And the free higher institution supported by all economic classes alike and patronized by all is to help keep these democratic ideals potent even in where the shadows of our civilization are deepest.

Above us men of this dear old earth, to which we are attached by gravitation and by other ties, and upon which we are dependent for the livelihood of these bodies which we have to carry about us, there stretches a territory invisible but not the less real for all that,—what one of our poets has called the western woods of time grows there; and the infinite sea is beyond, the sea which no man has yet reached alive, but of which we have had some glimpse with our strongest lenses and from our tallest trees.

Into this land the man of the lens goes day after day in search of the bacteria which are as the beasts of prey in the forest. Night after night he ventures forth among the alone to fetch back to earth some past bit of truth across his shoulder; and morning after morning, like another Prometheus, he catches new fire unpolluted from the sun to kindle anew his purposes. In to the edge of the Unknown the man of the meter and the balance, the crucible and the spectrum go with him to measure and weigh, conquer and keep the clearing,—to widen every man's estate who has the spirit and the self-denial to follow into that land.

Are not such men as these—such as are gathered here to-day—as wisely subsidized by the States as those who run boundary lines or cut roads into the frontier fields? For, after all, the "payment for tuition" is the subsidizing of the teacher, and not of the student. The teacher paid of the State is a commissioner of public lands, a probate judge for the property of the past's bequeathing; a government surveyor for the guidance of those who come upon the territory.

A few weeks ago I met an old classmate of mine, a Japanese, who had in the employ of his own government, traveled three or four thousand miles to make study of the culture of poppy. The Japanese do not permit the use of opium among themselves, but they sell it to their Chinese subjects in Formosa to get profitable labor out of them. But we are to stimulate the hopeless to labor or still their murmuring with no such flowers of forgetfulness. Democracy if it flourish, must keep the way open for rich and poor alike to the dearest possessions of the race and to that end the payment of tuition seems to me a just charge in theory, and a necessary charge where private philanthropy cannot or does not provide these toll-less roads.

A few nights ago I was asked to say to England's greatest

prelate the best word that democracy had to say to him as he was leaving for his own shores, and that word was in expression, not of what a few of her sons had done in love of their neighbors, their charities, but of what she had herself done out of her own treasures for the education of her own and especially for their higher education. This is not only the best token of democracy's highmindedness. It is in this that the best promise for the future lies. I believe that the lengthening, broadening, heightening of her own life makes the payment for this a just charge against her treasures.

IS THE PAYMENT OF TUITION IN THE FREE
STATE UNIVERSITY A JUST CHARGE ON
THE PUBLIC TREASURY?

PROFESSOR JOHN L. STEWART, LEHIGH UNIVERSITY.

My friends, I feel now very much like the man in Hale's, "My Double and How He Undid Me," whose refuge was to say: "There has been so much said and on the whole well said, I do not think I will occupy the time." But I want to occupy a little of the time—being in New Jersey—in saying something about Pennsylvania. When I received the invitation to speak on this topic I was convinced that its title could only have been phrased by a Pennsylvanian. I may be wrong, but it certainly was phrased by those who were interested in the question of university education, or higher education generally, from a point of view that is becoming vastly more and more ancient. It is not so many years ago that in Pennsylvania the question was raised, Are public schools justifiable? And it is presumed that it was thought they were not; for they were not established until two centuries after those of Massachusetts. When we realize that it has only been since 1836 that Pennsylvania has had a system of public schools not administered under the statue, "An act making provision for the education of the poor *gratis*," and that the whole point of view of education was decidedly non-social in the sense of taking into consideration all of the elements of the community, you can easily understand what must be the state of mind of the States represented in this college association to-day.

When Pennsylvanians, or those of the Middle States, wish to excuse a great deal that is characteristic of their social life, they point out that we are more typically representative of America than any other part of the Union. Now Pennsylvania has more colleges in it than any State in the Union, and as a matter of fact, has more illiteracy in proportion to its population than any State north of Mason and Dixon's line; and that illiteracy is not confined necessarily to the newly arrived immigrant. One inquiring for the report of the State Superintendent of Education for the year 1900 will find there a document that is one of the most disheartening that has been contributed to educational literature. It is an account of each college in Pennsylvania written by someone connected with it; and when you come to ask what is the financial status of the Pennsylvania colleges, you will get at the fact that the great bulk of them have absolutely no money at all. There are barely half a dozen of colleges in the State that are anywhere near with their heads above water. How true that is in New York, or the adjoining States, I do not know; but certainly the fact that we are face to face with to-day is this: How far are we going to develop a system of university education based on private munificence?

To my mind this issue will be raised more and more in the Middle States. Mr. Finley suggests that the proposition put to a New Englander would be that there is no need of the payment of tuition in New England. A glance at the reports of the presidents of Yale and Harvard will convince you that both of those institutions are facing a financial crisis. Their annual reports for the last three years show conclusively that in no sense is private charity keeping up with the demands of the higher education in America. Not only with the increase of students comes no advancement in the grade of instructors, particularly to that of professor, but there has been a steady diminution in the salaries. That is true of Harvard and it is true of Yale; and if you cross the Hudson and come to the State north of us and look at the financial situation confronting two of the largest universities in that State you are convinced of the fact that higher education as understood in northeastern United States is at a point in its history that needs very serious consideration. For two generations we have been working out the problem in this part of the world, What is a university?

How is it to be organized? Now we are face to face with the fact that we must discuss this question (which does seem rather academic, at first) : How are we to maintain them? And there is every evidence in college literature of recent years that we will be forced to consider other sources than that of private philanthropy.

It is notorious that with all of the statements of the great sums of money contributed to our colleges by the rich, they do not begin to add to the real effectiveness of those institutions. As a matter of fact, the proposition to give a building to a college to-day makes the institution understand that sooner or later it will have to be confronted with the great problem of how to meet its general expenditures. Every additional building implies an additional cost. Now the result has been that to-day, with rising prices, with steady diminution in the rate of interest from endowments, many of our older universities are facing a situation like that which ten years ago began to have such serious consequences for Oxford and Cambridge. A steady falling off in the revenue from the endowments of Oxford and Cambridge has forced them into the most serious financial position imaginable, and they have applied to Parliament. You have heard it discussed in English magazines, "How Americans contribute to the support of their educational institutions," and "Why don't some rich men come forward in England and save Oxford and Cambridge?" The newly organized urban universities at Liverpool, Manchester and Birmingham have secured municipal aid. The man who may be the next prime minister of England has thrown aside the idea of *laissez-faire* in higher education. We have known that Herbert Spencer said that the support of public schools would result in the devitalizing of any population, but President Finley has referred you to the non-parasitic character of most of our western population. When one realizes that in those States west of the Alleghanies there has developed a system of education that is going to be the determining type of the United States, one also realizes that we have got to face this fact—that there must be a closer relation between those who develop university education and those who control our political policy.

There is no danger in what is called politics in universities. Those of you who have had any experience with public schools know that frequently a good, cold northwest wind of public

opinion sweeping through them does more good than the quiet discussion that frequently involves the retention of those who ought not to be retained, as is frequently the case in the private institutions; and that is true of our private universities. Men are retained who, if they were in public institutions, would be marked men, only because of their pull; and we know that one of the most sickening kinds of pull, in addition to the political pull, is social pull. We are simply dealing in abstractions in insisting that we lose something in national morality if we adopt the idea of a State university.

I do not know how far the discussion of educational questions leads to pessimism; but you remember the extract that was read this morning from Barrett Wendell's address on the woeful condition of the undergraduate at Harvard. You may also recall the expression of opinion the historian Gibbon made at the expense of Magdalen College, Oxford, more than a hundred years ago; and so bitter were those comments that Magdalen College refused to accept a memorial plate in honor of Gibbon when his centennial was celebrated. But what Mr. Wendell said about the hopeless condition of the undergraduate to-day was said then not only of the Oxford undergraduate but also of the professors. It was also said not very many years ago by one of the greatest leaders of university reform in England, Mark Pattison; and to-day *The Spectator* talks of the "illiterate undergraduate" and the "rotten culture" at Oxford. To justify that, the Harvard situation, or rather to explain it, Mr. Wendell says it is due to the American eagle habit of floating over everything so that we might pick and choose. Whatever element of degeneracy has taken place in the undergraduate body is due unquestionably to the faulty organization of our characteristic university. When you realize that men to-day lecture to two hundred to five hundred undergraduates who are then split up into small sections of forty and handed over—to experienced teachers? Not at all—handed over to men who have just graduated. Our larger universities are deliberately exploiting the younger men, keeping up a constant run of instructors who have no chance of becoming professors or assistant professors; until we are probably soon to be in a position parallel to that in the navy twenty years ago, when the service was full of gray-headed lieutenants. The question is one solely of finance; and we have got to face

the fact that the relation the universities bear to the public is one that will become an exceedingly important social question.

How far the State can be brought into a relation with the university is another question. But we have lived long enough in this country and understand the tendency of our civilization sufficiently, to realize that the State can no longer stand apart. Only in those countries where education is regarded as a national question of greatest importance; only where it is regarded as a great social investment have we had any great development in civilization. Prussia and Scotland are unquestionably to-day the leaders in the world. The most eminent men in the British Parliaments, in British science or literature, are Scottish people, because of the fact that Scotland, like Prussia, made provision for the development of ability and character from the lowest rung of the ladder to the highest. We in the Middle States have characteristically ignored the relation of all steps in education. Numerous charitable efforts have been made to provide higher education; but we know well enough in many directions it has been a failure. A large number of our colleges are cut off from any wholesome contact with the public and are forced to compete for students under conditions that become worse than ridiculous. The situation is such that we recognize the evolution of what we call the educational drummer, and our presidents make tours connected with the business of looking up students. You cannot imagine the rector of a German university strolling the provinces, making out a case for athletics, speaking on football to enthusiastic alumni bodies in order to keep up their interest in their institutions. The position that presidents and professors are in becomes almost pathetic when we view the greater interests committed to their charge. I do not believe any more serious question has ever been brought before this body than that which is suggested by this title; because it is going to bring up, in the long run, the very serious question, Can we hope for a continued support from private sources for the development of higher education in the United States? Personally I do not believe we can.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

DR. JAMES M. GREEN, PRINCIPAL OF THE STATE NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS, TRENTON, NEW JERSEY.—I should like to speak, briefly, on this subject, which I think to be one of the very most important that has come before us.

It would seem that very often in asking what is the province of the State, we look upon the State as a personality separate from the people that compose it. From this point of view, we are sometimes jealous of the rights that shall be taken from us or exercised for us by this being thus personified.

If we take another point of view, one from which we simply see the people acting in their collective capacity, the rights they (the State) may exercise seem much more clearly defined.

The student of our constitutional history and development finds that there are practically no limitations put upon the powers of the people acting in their collective capacity other than that they shall *not* limit themselves, at least by proscribing individual liberty. The very essence of government is constructive and positive, rather than restrictive and negative.

The Mayflower compact was simply "Equal rights before the law." The Declaration of Independence asserts that all men are endowed with certain inalienable rights, such as life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That governments are instituted to secure these rights, and derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. The Constitution of the United States has in its preamble, "To insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence and promote the general welfare."

Judge Cooley, who will be recognized as one of our greatest authorities on constitutional law, himself said that there were no restrictions upon the powers of the people with reference to higher education, that the only question to decide was whether or not the people were willing to vote for it.

Our country has established abundant precedents along this line. It is fair to suppose that when the question of dyking the Mississippi first came up there was as much debate and question concerning the function of the State in that matter as there is now concerning this function in higher education.

I think it was Daniel Webster who said that anything which

could be shown to concern a large proportion of people was a just matter for public support.

I cite these things as practically judicial decisions. In our practice we have followed these decisions. For instance, in the establishment of our mail service, why should the State deliver my individual mail at my door? Why should I not pay for it myself? The answer must be found in the right of community action. The questions of State government and National government are of course parallel.

The government has set aside public lands for higher education, especially in the West. It has established the Smithsonian Institute, the academies at West Point and Annapolis.

In our own State, New Jersey, it has been common to hear the expression, "The State has no right to furnish the higher education." This same expression was once frequent concerning the State's right to furnish any education. Our Constitution provides that no public funds shall be appropriated to the support of any private institution. One of the most prominent members of our State government remarked concerning the introduction of manual training, "I do not believe the State has a right to furnish instruction in manual training, but I dare not publicly oppose this matter as I would be voted down by the people." So strong is this widening sentiment that just now we have in our courts the very delicate question whether or not appropriating public moneys for scholarships in private institutions, such as colleges, is appropriating money to those institutions. There is a large sentiment to the effect that it is not, and one of our leading State officials has held that if a college would accept State supervision, there could be no question in our State on the point of thus supporting higher education.

Dr. Louis Bevier, Jr., is here, and will correct me if I have misstated this matter.

One or two points further. I regret that President Finley in his able address used the word "charity." I should like to see that word stricken out. It was given a place in the early history of our public education, but it has now been supplanted by the word "co-operation." The community has discovered that it can best serve the cause of education by acting in its collective capacity, rather than by leaving it to the accidents and incidents of individual beneficence.

I glory in the work that has been done by our private colleges and schools, and certainly these institutions should be endorsed. There is plenty of room for all classes of good instruction, but the question is, should all higher education be left to private instruction. This is not a question of charity, but rather one of policy, a question whether the community can serve itself better by taking hold of this matter than by leaving it entirely to private enterprise.

President Draper, of the Illinois State University, now State Superintendent of Public Instruction in New York, in discussing public education not long since, remarked that the public schools did not come from the college down,—they came rather from the people up. They, more than any other institution, have been built upon the necessity of the people, and directed to meet felt needs, and that their course of study manifested this characteristic.

Regard utilitarianism from the philosophical point of view in whatever light we please, the tax-payer presents a distinct and definite claim on the public school. He asks that along with other accomplishments his boy shall be equipped to do definite things, as in engineering, the professions, etc.

Higher educational institutions supported by the public must turn a receptive ear in this direction. The private institution may not. There is a suggestion in this thought. No one would want to see any of the institutions established by great private philanthropy weakened. It is possible that in competition with the influence of the public institution their courses might even be strengthened, and that a profit might thus come to both.

In conclusion, I think there is no legal question as to the right of higher education being a charge upon the State. It is a matter of disposition. The question might be asked, Does such education benefit the people as a whole? The answer might be, Yes, General Grant received it.

THIRD SESSION.

Friday November 25, 1904, at 8 P. M.

Dr. Truman J. Backus, presiding.

THE PRESIDENT.—The President of your Association has been placed under great obligations by the gentleman who takes his place as speaker this evening. It will be an abiding obligation. When the orator has spoken to you out of the abundance of his soul and has finished what he has to say to you, you, too, will feel under obligations to Mr. Murphy. Mr. Murphy will speak to you of "The Public Function of the Public School."

THE PUBLIC FUNCTION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

MR. EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF THE
SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD.

The personal function of the public school is a familiar interest of our thought. It is ever the function of the school to bring to the individual that blending of knowledge and of equipment which we call culture. It is also one of the commonplaces of observation, a familiar element of our thinking, that the public school has a certain domestic function. It comes to the aid of the family in the reinforcement of the instincts of order and in the development of the habits of obedience. The public school has also a social function. It brings, through the inspiration of its culture and through the instructions of order, a certain faculty to men by which they are enabled to relate themselves more intelligently, happily and fruitfully to the animate and inanimate forces of the world about them.

But these functions of the public school might be discharged just as well by the private school, or by the public school under the conditions of a monarchy or an aristocracy. There remains a function of the public school which I venture to call its public function, and which is peculiarly the function of the public school in a democracy. In a democracy, because here the school must become to the individual not merely a nursery of personal culture, nor merely a nursery of the domestic and

social virtues, but a nursery of citizenship. The state supported school must bring the State support. It must instruct the people not merely in the faculties of obedience and adaptation but in the faculties of rulership. This is the constructive function of the public school in a democracy—that distinctive element in the public school of the State which makes it peculiarly the school of the State for the ends of the State in forming the civic character of the State.

Under this function of the school, the school is seen as an institution by which men are taught not merely how they are to relate themselves harmoniously to an established order, but how they themselves are to establish the order to which they are to relate themselves.

How is this function of the school to be made efficient? In the first place, it is evident that we are to secure this efficiency not merely by giving a certain civic and public quality or aspect to our methods of education, because the method of education is, after all, only the method. That which informs the method and makes it a power of constructive inspiration is the personality of the teacher; and if we are to bring about a clearer and more far-reaching conception of the public function of the public school—if we are to increase the public efficiency of our public education, we must do so through the personality of the teaching force.

We find here one of the peculiar limitations of our situation. It is a limitation, and yet it possesses its advantages also. We find that the masses of our democracy are gathered in our public schools under the immediate leadership and influence of a teaching force that is preponderantly a force of women. In the State of New York there are eight women to one man in the teaching profession; and the proportionate number of women seems to be steadily increasing. This situation presents advantages, as I have said; it presents also limitations—limitations with which in one way or another the land must deal; because the public function of the school can never, I take it, be interpreted in the last analysis with the acutest sympathy and power if the teaching force of our democracy is not sharing in the full standpoint of the citizen. Men and women teach not merely out of text-books; they teach not merely by inheritance and tradition and perhaps by native faculty of heart; they teach, let us remember, out of all the assumptions of their

thinking, out of all the assumptions of their feeling. It is through these assumptions that the teacher, consciously and unconsciously, is always declaring his or her standpoint; and that standpoint, if it is to be effective in the constructive molding of our citizenship, ought, in the fullest sense, to be the standpoint of the citizen.

Now it seems to me that we are to reach this result in one of two ways—or I should prefer to say, in both ways. First, we are to reach it by increasing the numeric strength of men in the teaching profession; and that cannot be brought about until the State takes this educational task a little more seriously and is willing to so put the man's remuneration that the man, even in the humblest school of our public educational system, feels that he can stay there with justice to himself, to his capacity, and to those who are dependent on him.

There are reasons why the women of America should be represented strongly in the teaching force of our country; but the "cheap reason" is not a sound reason; the real reasons are personal—belong to that character which the woman brings to her task, belongs to those instincts, interests and habits of mind by which the woman brings into the consciousness of the child the distinctive qualities, the distinctive touch, of her nature. However, we should take the woman thus equipped with her womanhood and we should bring to the woman who is charged with the task of the public education of the citizenship of the State, a larger heritage of civic and political influence. How otherwise is she to gain the full standing of the citizen? Are we forever to ask that she shall vicariously interpret the functions of our democracy? Are we to go on asking that she shall continue to stand outside of that conscious and responsible life by which the State is deliberately and directly ordered?

Just how far this involves the suffrage for the teaching women of America I will not pause here and now to say; but I will pause to say that, directly or indirectly, the civic responsibilities and the political influence of the women of America must be increased, if we are to continue the present system of American public education—a system under which the training of the citizenship of the land is so largely in the hands of those who are denied the fullest and the freest sharing of the standpoint of the citizen.

The personality of the teacher: it is through that personality

—its instinctive assumptions, its standpoint, the things which are the background of its influence—it is through this personality as a conscious, intelligent and responsible patriotic force that we are to secure more largely the public efficiency of the public school.

In the second place, I think we may secure that efficiency by having and holding a clearer social ideal as to the public function of the school. Here and there the individual man or the individual woman lives in the fullest appreciation of the relation of the school to the thinking, responsible life of our democratic order; but is that ideal of the school a social ideal? Is it so in any popular sense—does it belong to the explicit counsel of the press, of the church, of the university? Is it a part of that common, collective estimation by which we deal with the public school and upon which we legislate for the public school? Do we appreciate, as a people, its public functions? Let us not say: "Lo! we have this ideal of the public function of the public school; what shall we do for it?" Because, when we have the ideal, believe me, it will do for itself. There is something about such an ideal—about any social ideal whether in spiritual or civic life—there is something about every such ideal which is self-interpreting, self-commending, self-administering, if we have it; if we have it not, it will be in vain that this or that leader will talk about it. But through this or that speaker talking about it, by its being carried into the hearts and minds of those comprising such gatherings as we find here, there will come about, I believe, the socializing of this ideal of what the public school may be.

And so there shall come about that third means, of which I now venture to speak: the changing of our popular educational policy from an unconscious to a conscious policy. I think that fifty or sixty years ago the public educational policy, certainly of New England, was a conscious policy: the thing had to be thought out; it had to be argued out; men had to be won to the acceptance of it and it became part of the conscious creed of the great masses of earnest-minded men and women. But turning to the present and thinking of our great city of New York, let me ask,—Is the public educational policy of that city a conscious policy of the whole municipality or is it just an unconscious assumption? It is the subject of popular appropriations, it is something for which laws are made as a

inevitably those who opposed it, and that opposition led to its defence and the defence to its clearer and more defensible exposition; until gradually there has come about in the minds of our people a sort of collective feeling toward this ideal. They realize with a certain tragic and yet—you will pardon me for saying—a certain heroic intensity of conviction that they are to-day at work not merely upon the education of this or that individual, but they are at work upon the education of *peoples*: two great people—the old, non-slave-holding white population which under the aristocratic system existing before the war was so largely cut off from educational privileges; and the former slave classes themselves; and because they are educating two peoples there has come about inevitably in the thinking of the South a social conception of the ideal of public education.

So you will see how the third element of helpfulness has been supplied, and that these very processes by which the public educational policy of the South has been conceived and stated and justified—that these very processes have led to that policy becoming a profoundly conscious policy. The very difficulties of the South have increased the intensity of that consciousness. Take, for example, the poverty of the South. If there is to be a school appropriation passed by the legislature or voted by the community and everybody is pretty well off, no one suffering very much and a good deal in the treasury, and if not a good deal in the treasury a good deal that is immediately and easily available for the treasury (and if public education has come to be one of the matters of course in community life)—then taxation for educational purposes creates no very great interest. But when nobody has very much and when a great many have nothing and when the treasury is already overburdened, the tax cuts; it means something. It means specific sacrifice, and the yielding of that specific sacrifice means specific effort; and thus the poverty of the South is one of the means by which this policy has become so intensely a conscious policy; and it is becoming, because a conscious policy, a victorious policy. The moment the American people anywhere seriously take up the question of public education and turn it over and over in all that it implies, you may depend upon it that they are going to answer it in only one way: there may be delays; there may be embarrassments; there may be difficulties; but in

the long run they are going to answer it in only one way; because they can be depended upon to realize its relation to the whole upbuilding of their democratic life, and not merely to its upbuilding but to its very existence.

I am glad, therefore, to be able to tell you that in the State of North Carolina, for example, two years ago there were only about fifty school districts in which the special local tax for educational purposes had been voted by the community. Two years have passed, and now there are about two hundred and twenty-five such districts. In the State of Alabama, for reasons which I need not stop now to explain, the very Constitution of the State, up to two or three years ago, forbade the county taxing itself for the education of its own children. We have preached the preposterousness, the unreasonableness, the un-Americanism of such a doctrine and we have declared that if a democracy means anything—not merely the democracy of the United States but the democracy of the Democratic party—if it means anything it means local responsibility; and so up and down the State of Alabama we have been talking this gospel of local taxation for schools. Permission by the new Constitution of the State has been granted for the counties to tax themselves; and I am glad to-night to be able to tell you that within the past six weeks fifteen counties of the State of Alabama have by vote of their own citizens levied taxes upon the property of the counties for the purposes of public education.

That is just a beginning. Out of the poverty of the South there has come not only the conscious policy of public education but there has come about a victorious policy; and the second of our difficulties, which has but increased this consciousness and increased the significance of this victory, lies in our isolation—in the isolation of the people of the South.

Let me illustrate this. There are in the States of Alabama and of South Carolina together, fewer white people than in the city of Chicago. The white population of Greater New York exceeds the aggregate white population of the States of Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi and South Carolina. Or, to take it the other way, you will have the white population of Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi and South Carolina if you just scatter out the white population of Greater New York over the area of these five States. Think of the comparative

isolation of such a population! About 61 per cent. of the population of New Jersey live in incorporated places of 8,000 population and over; in Massachusetts about 67 per cent.; in New York, 68 per cent. In the State of Alabama, a little over 7 per cent. live in places of this size; in Mississippi only 2.6 per cent.

Taking the South from Maryland southward, there are 17,000,000 human beings, all living in places of less than 1,000 inhabitants. Now the difficulties of maintaining a system of public education under these conditions of the distribution of population are absolutely prodigious; and yet for the very reason that our people are scattered and without money, our very many small communities have to depend upon the co-operation of larger communities in order to have any sort of public educational policy at all. Thus a collective need creates a collective purpose; the State feeling creates a State ideal for the public schools; and while "local taxation" is the chief policy of the future, we began with the policy of State taxation because it was a necessary concomitant of our conditions; and that policy of State taxation—the strong helping the weak, all putting into the same treasury and all educating from the same fund—brought about that socializing of the ideal of public education which I have mentioned as the second of the forces for the clearing and strengthening of the public function of the public school.

In the third place, the negro. We all know that there never comes a real test of any principle of democratic life or of any other life—there never comes the real test of any real principle until that test has met its profoundest opposition, until the greatest objection to it has been stated, until the greatest obstacle to its enforcement or to its expression has been overcome. So the moment the philosophy—the theory—of public education was proposed among us, inevitably it had to meet all of those prejudices and oppositions that instinctively gather, and gather everywhere, around the individual of a weaker race. Have we stopped? Now and then you will hear that some Southern leader—perhaps a little anxious for the lime-light—has uttered some violent remarks with regard to the education of the negro and declares he will persuade the State to divide the funds of its public treasury between the schools of the negro and the schools of the white man in proportion to the taxes paid by each.

You can realize that this proposition possesses a certain plausibility to certain minds. I fancy that if you had the same conditions of population here there would be somebody leading some political party or some faction of a political party who would make a like declaration. I do not believe that you would endorse that proposal, any more than you will believe that the people of the South will endorse it. As often as it has been proposed it has been negatived. Just as a great legal principle, as the right of *habeas corpus*, has always been defined in relation to that individual or that class which could not defend itself and which therefore brought the principle purely and strictly as a principle most clearly into issue, so the great principles of educational policy are always defined most clearly and most rigorously and most completely in reference to those who cannot defend themselves, but who present the question in its simplest terms as a task of essential state-craft. Therefore the South has attempted to educate her negro population. I am always glad to hear the negro orator, in declaring the progress of his race, say that the illiteracy of the negro race has been reduced approximately 50 per cent. in forty years, and it is a record of great credit to the negro race that that is true; but I also want men to realize that this has been done in the schools of the South and chiefly by the public schools of the Southern States.

The private, missionary schools have rendered noble service, but the burden of the task in the reduction of illiteracy always falls chiefly on the public school.

There can be no tribute to the educational progress of the negro which is not indirectly a tribute to the educational statesmanship of the South.

Now under these difficulties which have presented themselves in our experience and largely by reason of the obstacles which have confronted us, our public educational policy has become a conscious policy. I submit to you, is there not something here which may be of value in the educational experience of the North? Is there not something here which can bring a suggestion of usefulness into the activities of those who are, directly or indirectly, through such institutions as you represent, constantly shaping the educational ideals of our people?

Would it not be of service to our land if there could be a little more explicit talking, even to our children in our schools,

about what public education means? Take it, for example, simply as a task of taxation: how many of the thousands upon thousands of little people that gather in New York City every weekday morning, or that gather in all of our American cities—how many of those thousands realize the task of taxation which their schools are representing? Would it not serve a certain policy of unification in the class divisions of America if the poor could realize that it is through the school that the wealth of the land contributes most helpfully to the social progress of our day? Would it not be of service if they got a little free from this so prevalent idea that the public school is founded as a sort of gracious and anonymous dispenser of State funds? That the school is the creation of certain impersonal funds—certain anonymous resources which just happen nobody knows how, which come as the sun comes and as the rain comes, just by the inevitable order of the world? Do not too many of our children fall back into that sort of thinking and feeling; and would it not aid a little in the solving of certain problems of the North—of certain of your industrial problems—if the policy of the public education became here a little more intimate, a little more conscious?

In reference, finally, not only to the policy of public education as a task of taxation but under many other of the aspects in which constantly it is making democracy possible among us, can we not all do just a little toward the clearing up of the conception of the public function of the public school?—the school everywhere ministering toward the freeing and the equipping of the people; the school everywhere contributing to the modification of all the passions and the rancours of faction—an instrument for the unifying and the nationalizing of American life?

I thank you for your attention.

FOURTH SESSION.

Saturday, November 26, 1904, at 10 A. M.

THE SIMPLIFICATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

PROFESSOR MARTIN G. BRUMBAUGH, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Educational processes below the college usually organize themselves into three types of schools—called the primary school, the grammar or intermediate school and the secondary school. They provide education for twelve years. This division seeks its justification in the nature of mind-growth and is for the most part sufficiently clear to be readily understood. We begin the formal, constructive work of education in the public schools at six. This means that at present we have in mind admission to college at the age of eighteen. The pupil at the end of a course of study in the secondary school is thus presumed to possess the result of twelve years of constructive educational activity. Viewed in the light of the time element alone, his career in the secondary school may be easily sketched. But other factors render complex the problem. Certain changes in the materials and processes of instruction and certain unfoldings in his own spirit condition his status.

In the grades below the secondary school the materials of instruction are necessarily less highly organized, more concrete, perhaps more fragmentary, surely more scrappy, than in the secondary school. The processes are wholly different. One teacher has been the sole guide each year. At the opening of the secondary school the boy finds himself suddenly thrust into a new order of teaching—departmental instruction. This is a severe change for the boy to adjust himself to. It not infrequently results in a complete rout of his mental complex of former years; and always the pupil at this stage should be regarded with concern and with sympathy.

The function of the primary school is *nutrition of feeling*. Little if any formal knowledge should be given. This school's chief value lies in its power to organize the child for work and to arouse in his mind a pleasurable interest in the things of the

school. The function of the intermediate school is the *nutrition of definition*. This school's chief value lies in its power to imitate constructive work, to organize the vague feelings of early school life into definite statements. It is the period when all the art elements in education should be fostered and when language study, especially in literature, should be emphasized.

The function of the secondary school is the *nutrition of insight*. Its chief value lies in its power to initiate formal thought processes and to apply analytic treatment to the materials mastered in the earlier types of schools. The danger lies (1) in the fact that not infrequently processes belonging to the intermediate school are deferred to the time when, in the secondary school, the mind is no longer fitted to entertain such data; (2) in the fact that the college sometimes demands of this school the organization of systems of thought in so many separate fields of effort that the pupil is literally swamped and comes from the struggle dazed, confused, and often unfitted for clear, vigorous thinking of the high order demanded by the college.

There are three types of secondary schools in America, so clearly differentiated that it is impossible to figure processes of education in terms that are equally just to all. These types are (1) *the private day school*—whose students are home-dwellers and whose study hours are in part not under the direct guidance of the school. The type of boy attending these schools is difficult of designation. In general these boys are for some reason irregular in their relation to the public school system. To fit them for college the years of preparation are usually extended, and the course of preparatory work lengthened to six years; (2) *the private boarding-school*—whose students live in the school and whose entire time is under the direct guidance of the school. The physical and mental well-being of the pupil is a matter of moment, and demands much of the time of the school and of the pupil. These pupils are usually the children of wealthy parents and know little of the power of self-help. They must have much done for them. They require constant spurring to enable them even in the extended period of six years to fit fully for college entrance. The excessive fees exacted by many of these schools is a serious menace to the democracy of educational activities in this country; (3) *the public high school*—whose students are always home-dwellers and

whose study hours are generally removed from the school's control. The work of these schools as college preparatory institutions is seriously menaced by the other necessary aims of the crowning institution of learning under the care, guidance and support of the whole people. Because of the length of time our public schools devote to studies below the secondary school—eight years—the public high school can devote but four years to the specific work of fitting selected pupils for work in higher institutions of learning.

Nevertheless, they are gaining both in numbers and in efficiency. Their growth is not at the expense of the private schools, but is due to the largely increased demand for college culture and training on the part of the American citizens. They are one of the choicest products of American democracy. It is more especially this type of secondary school that I have in mind in the discussion of the problem of simplification of the curriculum.

There are at least three plans worthy of consideration in the simplification of the curriculum of the secondary school:

- (1) Simplification by elimination.
- (2) Simplification by enrichment of the materials of instruction.

(3) Simplification by enrichment of the teaching process.

These three plans for simplification are radically different. The first assumes that the materials of the curriculum of the secondary school are too great quantitatively for the pupil to master. The second assumes that the amount is not too great, but that the materials are not wisely organized, and that there is a consequent waste of effort, which may be corrected by a recasting of the data used in the secondary school. The third assumes that the materials of the curriculum are to remain, both as to quantity and quality as they are, and that the secondary school teacher is more in need of reorganization than is the material of the curriculum.

What light may we have upon these suggested reforms from the heads of great systems of schools and from the principals of great public secondary schools? I have received from upwards of a hundred leading secondary schools leaders' replies to an inquiry on this matter. In a majority of cases reported to me they agree with Superintendent Yocom, of Chester, Pa., who says: "I do not think that the four years' college prepara-

tory course, necessary to meet the uniform entrance requirement, is too heavy."

Superintendent Mackey, of Trenton, N. J., says: "So far as I am familiar with the requirements, I do not think that any of them are too heavy."

Superintendent Jones, of West Chester, says: "We find in our work that we can prepare in the four years' course the pupils for college."

Superintendent Harman, of Hazleton, thinks the present curriculum, "so far as it relates to preparation for college, is not in its totality *too* heavy, but *top* heavy."

Superintendent Foos reports that in Reading there is "no trouble to meet the college requirements."

Superintendent Coughlin, of Wilkesbarre, is of the opinion that "we do not require too much from the high schools as a preparation for entrance to college."

Superintendent Bryan, of Camden, N. J., thinks "the requirements seem to be quite within the reach of the high school."

Principal Baer, of the Harrisburg High School, says: "I do not think the present curriculum is too heavy." Over against this testimony is a respectable minority that think there should be some simplification by elimination.

Superintendent Wilson, of Wayne, Pa., believes that the "demands of the college are far in excess of what ought to be required of a high school."

Superintendent Van Cleve, of Mansfield, O., is of the opinion that, "the colleges of the country have decidedly overstepped the bounds of reason in their demands upon the public high schools."

Superintendent Simkins, of Newark, O., reports that he feels "we are pushing the boys and girls along too rapidly."

Principal Eisenhower, of Norristown High School, says: "I do not think it is possible to make full preparation in the four high school years."

While these men differ as to the ability of pupils to fit for college they do agree essentially that there should be uniform entrance requirements in all the so-called entrance studies, and that the college should not allow the teachers in each department to specify what the standard should be in each study. They agree that the college professor frequently exacts an entrance requirement far in excess of the reasonable demands

of his subject. As one principal puts it: "The requirements in history are becoming heavy—especially if all are honestly met. These are the text-book requirement, daily recitation of forty-five minutes each for one year—with outside reading specified—all this to count one point out of fifteen for entrance. "A progressive superintendent cites a college that required for entrance in Latin, "first, ordinary first-year preparation; second, five books of Cæsar and Latin prose; third, eight orations of Cicero and Latin prose; fourth, twelve books of Virgil." Upon protest to the president of the college that the requirement was excessive and hinting that the Professor of Latin was a fool, the president replied that he was helpless to interfere because he did not wish to disturb the freedom of scholastic spirit in the college! Evidently no college has any warrant for such unjust exactions and should never allow the relative worth of the various studies to be lost sight of.

These practical school leaders agree also that the vital question is not what specific studies a boy may have had in the secondary school, but what strength and maturity of mind he possesses to do college work.

The high school inspector in a neighboring State seems to me to express a reasonable opinion as to the amount of work the high school should be required to do. With a school year of at least thirty-six weeks, with four or five recitation periods each day, and each period not less than forty-five minutes, the pupil should be required to complete the following minimum of work: Language, six units; mathematics, three units; history, two; English, three; science, two. The language work should embrace four years of Latin and two years of Greek, German, French or Spanish. Mathematics should embrace the standard texts in algebra and geometry. History should receive one year of United States history and civics and one year of ancient or modern history. English should have two years on rhetoric and composition and one year on classics. Science should embrace one year of physics and one year of biology. This course would require four studies for each of four years. No art elements are here provided for, and they could be added only by the lessening of the work in English and history. This seems to me a wise and sufficient exaction. To undertake more is to accomplish even less.

It is to be noted that this plan of studies lays great relative

stress upon the work in language. This seems to me to be wise. The pupil in the high school acquires language with facility. It is to be doubted whether it is wise to introduce much science into the average high school. The pupil is scarcely fitted for the interpretation of scientific data. At most he gets only a descriptive and mechanical training. True insight is a result that as yet he is incapable of achieving. I have long been of the impression that the elements of science should not be given at the period when the emphasis of educational activity should rest upon the study of language. A teacher of physics in a large university once declared to me that he preferred to receive boys who had no knowledge of physics rather than to expend his energy in breaking up superficial habits of study and mechanical toying with apparatus such as he generally found in boys who had been "through physics" in the secondary school and, therefore, regarded that study as of no further value to them.

Simplification by enrichment of the material of instruction has as yet not been worked to a definite conclusion above the elementary school. The difficulty is that in the secondary school, as in the college, teachers are jealous of their special subject and seem to devote their energy to isolating the subject-matter of their several departments as fully as possible from that of other related branches of study. In some cases they do what is even worse—they impress upon the pupil the importance of their own subject by referring slightly to the value of other departments of study—a procedure that is not only highly unprofessional, but equally fatal to the harmonious development of a system of knowledge in the minds of the pupil. While it does not seem at all impossible to establish some community of interest, some system of correlation, in the materials of instruction offered in the secondary school, one is obliged to recognize the fact that the present trend is in the opposite direction.

The one method of simplification not yet even widely recognized by those in responsible relation to the problem of the secondary school and the college, and which promises the surest and speediest solution of our problem, is simplification by enrichment of the teaching process. This means, of course, the equipment of the secondary school not only with an adequate faculty, but a faculty of individuals who are more than scholars,

who are really teachers. The crying need of college and of secondary schools, especially of the latter, is not a faculty of scholars whose pride and interest are in the subjects, but a faculty of thoroughly trained teachers, whose pride and interest are in their pupils first of all. Boys need to be taught. They should be daily under the guidance of great teachers—teachers who know the vital difference between knowing a thing and the power to make the pupil know that thing.

The testimony of our leading college presidents is that, as a group, the best equipped pupils now entering the colleges of America come from the public high schools. This is true in the East, where the private school is a traditionally established fitting school; and it is certainly true in the West. My own interpretation of this is the fact that better teaching is done in the high schools. The supervision is pedagogic, and the teachers are chosen not alone for their scholarship, but generally for their pedagogic skill. If our boys are to come to college equipped both by knowledge and mental ability to carry the studies of the college, they must spend the years of preparation under the finest quality of teaching that money and experience can command. We must insist upon professional training more and upon specialized scholarship less if we are to provide for our boys the training the college needs.

Thus the problem of the past, the attempt to simplify the curriculum of the secondary school by elimination, must yield to the problem of the future—the simplification that may be wrought by a reorganization of the curriculum through a closer correlation of the subject-matter of secondary education. This is one of the problems of the pedagogy of the future.

In the meantime and always the direct and effective simplification of the complex processes of secondary education will best be secured by placing the training of the youth of the country under the guidance of teachers who know not only scholarly standards in their respective specialties, but who are first and foremost and always equipped by systematic training in the principles of teaching to discipline as well as to inform the expanding powers of a maturing soul.

THE SIMPLIFICATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

MISS LOUISE H. HAESLER, PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL
FOR GIRLS.

I would be happier than I am at this moment if I could feel sure that this audience fully recognized the fact that I recognize my own presumption in venturing to address it upon this subject. Without any opportunity for the breadth of outlook, the all-round view that comes to the executive of a school, with only a teacher's knowledge of secondary school work, and with that knowledge limited to experience within one public high school, I have undertaken to express an opinion about the simplification of the secondary school curriculum. Under these circumstances but one consolation remains to me. It must have been the desire of the committee in charge of the program to secure an expression of opinion from the point of view of a teacher, a public school teacher, or they would not have invited me to take part in the discussion. That being the case, if you are dissatisfied you will please settle the matter with the committee.

During the last twelve years of the quarter of a century in which I have been teaching in the Philadelphia High School for Girls I have seen many courses of study come—and go. Not one has been entirely satisfactory to anybody. All have had good points, but all have been too complex, too full. The modern Herculean endeavor to crowd the achievements of eternity into the limits of time has been apparent in them all—that is, in all except the college preparatory course. Strictly speaking, I suppose that is the only part of our work in which this Association is interested. At least that seems to be the point of view taken by Dr. Brumbaugh; but to me the subject under consideration naturally means something more. Our High School, like many others, sends but a small fraction of the whole body of its pupils to college. The question for us is not so much how shall we meet the exacting and varied demands of the college entrance requirements as it is how shall we best fit for life that great majority of our girls who never expect to go to college, and as I take it for granted that one

of the objects of this Association is to secure the greatest good for the largest number, I make no apology for presenting this side of the question.

Our trouble with courses of study began when the school authorities undertook to satisfy every educational theorist who wanted his pet subject taught in the public schools. To meet their demands one thing after another was introduced until, finally, we had a course with cooking and sewing at one extreme, three languages and six sciences at the other, with several commercial subjects in between, besides English, mathematics, history, drawing, music, and calisthenics! Apparently our pupils then had every opportunity of finding out for what they were specially fitted in life, for they had a chance to sample everything. But alas! it seemed as difficult to decide as it was for the small boy whose father and mother left him alone in a room with a Bible, a silver dollar and an apple. If he chose the Bible they were going to make a minister of him; if the dollar, he was to be a merchant; and if his choice fell on the apple he must be trained as a farmer. But when they returned to the room they found him sitting on the Bible with the dollar in his pocket and contentedly eating the apple!

After a year or two of that kind of thing the unloading process began. The commercial subjects were added to and formed into a separate course which has since developed into the Commercial High School for Girls, now being carried on with such marked success. Then cooking, and, later, sewing were dropped, and with them all hope for the time of starting a manual training school for girls, a much needed institution. Last year Latin was eliminated, except as an elective, and to-day *all* that those of our pupils who do not enter the college preparatory course take up during the four years of their High School experience—*all* that they take up—is three branches of mathematics, four of history, English, including grammar, rhetoric, composition and literature, drawing, music, botany, biology, chemistry, physics, physiology, physical geography, French or German with Latin, or, if Latin is not elected, both French and German.

Now this is a decided change for the better, although I am presumptuous enough to think there is still room for improvement. But, comparing our courses of study with those of other high schools of the same rank I find that practically the

same thing exists with them. We are not exceptional at all. We have simply kept up, with others, the race-course pace of this latter age in the domain of mind, apparently without regarding the fact that the minds we have to deal with in secondary school work are undeveloped minds in undeveloped bodies animated by undeveloped souls.

Let me give you an illustration. Several weeks ago one of my first year classes was reciting in ancient history. The topic for the day was the Assyrian conquests, and one of the girls was endeavoring to describe Tiglath-Pileser I. In the course of her recitation she called him a "wild" man, and on questioning her as to her meaning I found, as I had surmised, that she had a hazy "Wild Man of Borneo" picture in her mind of the "Great King." I asked the class what expression in their text-book—Wolfson's *Essentials in Ancient History*—she was trying to interpret, and some one quoted that he was "full of the wildest animal spirits." I called for explanation of the expression. One girl said it meant that he was "fierce," another that he was "brutal," a third that he was "fast." From that class of forty-one members I could not obtain one satisfactory interpretation of the phrase. Do you blame me that, as I proceeded with the lesson, I mentally recalled with amusement a sentence in the Report of the Committee of Seven to the effect that a sufficiently simple written exercise in history for a first year High School class was the reproduction in their own words of a page or two—not of Wolfson, or Myers, or Botsford—but of Grote or Mommsen? I have told this story—and I am not afraid to assert that every High School teacher here could match it easily—simply to show the feeble grasp upon their own language of the average first year High School pupils and, its inevitable consequent, their feeble mental development.

It has seemed to me for some years past that this lamentably weak hold upon language has been more perceptible, and that, too, despite the greater emphasis laid upon language study in the elementary schools. I can account for it only by the fact that our High School population has greatly changed in character within the last ten or fifteen years. The increasing prosperity of the country has made it *possible* for parents who themselves have had no educational advantages to send their children through the High School, instead of putting them to work

after a few years' instruction in the elementary schools, and the universal increased interest in education has made them *want* to do this. To quote a Salvation Army phrase, we are "getting deeper down" in the masses. Thackeray says it takes three generations to make a gentleman—I wonder how many it takes to make a scholar? Heredity and environment are both against habits of study and even a speaking acquaintance with correct English in the homes of a large number, perhaps even of the majority, of our High School pupils. In many cases, too, far more frequently than formerly, the parents, even the children, are of foreign birth. I think I have not a class to-day in which there are not several girls who could probably recite their history lesson more fluently in Russian, Italian or German than they can in English. This condition of things used to be confined to the elementary schools, but it has been rapidly creeping into the High School during the last ten years, or, at least it has in the Philadelphia High School which, I beg you to remember, is the only one that I profess to know anything about.

During that period, too, the moral as well as the intellectual atmosphere of the school has changed for the worse, due largely, I am convinced, to the same causes. There is too sadly apparent a coarseness of manner and expression, a lack of integrity, a disposition to law-breaking, a spirit of irreverence, and an almost contemptuous indifference to remonstrance that is based upon high moral grounds. Now when we take this condition of things into serious consideration, and remember that it is the first duty of the public schools of our country to make, not good classical or scientific scholars, but good citizens of their pupils, the importance of introducing them to a great variety of studies does not loom up so large, especially as an introduction, and that of the most superficial character, is about as far as they ever get. Not the acquisition of a mass of general information, but the acquisition of right mental and moral habits should be the main motive in all public school work, high schools included. To my mind the problem resolves itself into an effort directed along three lines—to teach our pupils to think logically, to speak and write clearly and correctly, and to act uprightly. What can better serve this three-fold purpose than a thorough course, extending through the entire four years of the High School, in mathematics and Latin, or

German, with, perhaps, one of the physical sciences, for the development, mainly, of logical habits of thought; a thorough course, extending through the entire four years of the High School, in English composition and literature, for the development chiefly of habits of correct writing and speaking; and a thorough course, extending through the entire four years of the High School, in history, for the development, among other things, of upright character, by the study of those men and deeds and causes that have tended to raise the standard of humanity and make the life of the race fuller, richer, nobler?

In St. Paul's Cathedral in London there is a monument to Nelson very suggestive of the use to which history should be put for children—and our High School pupils are little more. It represents Britannia pointing out the great hero's statue to two boys with their school satchels over their shoulders. You can almost hear her say, "Go ye and do likewise!" Of course the poor sculptor was not acquainted with the most approved modern method of teaching history. To suggest *that*, Britannia would need to be represented as sending the boys to the Bodleian library to make a minute and careful research into original documents, state records, private letters, etc., that they might decide for themselves what kind of man this Nelson was, and whether he or the English sailors won Trafalgar and saved England from French invasion. But I am talking about the kind of teaching of history that will arouse a spirit of reverence and of emulation, for, wrongly or rightly, that seems to me the greatest need of the hour where our young people are concerned.

Such a course as I have suggested would be intensive rather than extensive and would eliminate a number of studies now very generally pursued, especially in the direction of science and the languages. But surely one language other than the English and one physical science are sufficient in a High School, both for purposes of training and of awakening any latent talent in either direction. If such talent exists in any pupils it should be further developed in the college or university; if it does not exist time employed in the study of a multiplicity of languages and physical sciences can be better spent in a more intensive study of mathematics, English composition and literature, and history, because these subjects are more readily grasped by the average High School pupil and because they

afford a larger opportunity to acquire a command of good English.

Nor am I speaking from theory only. In our own school this narrower range of studies has been tried in one of our college preparatory courses for the past ten years with thoroughly satisfactory results. To be sure, our classical course, in order to meet college entrance requirements, especially those of our near neighbor, Bryn Mawr, provides for three languages instead of one and gives only one year of history, but, until recently, it gave only one science and no time was spent on minor subjects, such as drawing and music. The difference between the senior section in this course and the senior sections in the general course in habits of attention, in grasping the meaning of text-book or explanation, and in expressing themselves in recitation or written work is so great in favor of the classical students that, after making all allowances for the fact that usually only bright and ambitious girls elect to take this course, there still remains a large balance that must be set down to the credit of the fewer studies. And I am persuaded that still better results would be attained if the course contained more English, history and mathematics and fewer foreign languages. Of course, with this curriculum only our graduates would not be admitted into the colleges as their entrance requirements now stand, but I am sure they would be better able to do college work than they now are, and I hope the good time is coming when college authorities everywhere will see the wisdom of admitting High School pupils upon the basis of their ability to do college work, instead of upon the basis of their having spent such and such time upon various subjects decided by the particular standpoint of each particular college. If that good time should come and if we should finally hit upon a course of study that would be the kind of mean I have suggested between our present classical and general courses our curriculum would be simplified indeed, and I believe our graduates would be more thoroughly prepared for any line of work they wanted to take up than they have ever been in the past. And is not want of thoroughness a crying evil in our present age? Do we not encounter superficial work everywhere, from the maid in our homes who dusts only the tops of things to the Wall Street gambler who buys stock on margin? The times are hungry for good work, thorough

work—shall we not try to teach our young people to satisfy this hunger?

You perceive I have based my judgment wholly upon my own experience, and that experience, except in length of time, is limited indeed. But, just as the creative power of the Almighty is seen in the tiniest flower of earth as well as in the majestic procession of the heavenly bodies through universal space, so the study of one group of the great army of children in our public schools reveals mental and moral conditions common to all. That has given me courage to express a conviction that I feel sure must be held by many other High School teachers—a conviction that under present conditions, with the class of pupils we are now getting, better results can be obtained by a thorough course in a few well chosen subjects than by a more or less superficial course covering many subjects. It takes born students to get the full benefit of the present average High School curriculum, and born students in American High Schools, at least in our large cities, are rare.

"We are still busy making the republic out of the children in our homes; out of the races which were here before us; out of men from all the completed countries whose doors open towards our long seabards; we are steadily, surely, making a people, with one language, one liberty, one virtue, one purpose. The world has no loftier ideal."

Coming home from England this past summer I was standing one day on the deck of the vessel looking down upon the steerage passengers. There were over seven hundred aboard, mainly Slavs and Germans, and among them many children. It was not a pleasant sight and I felt depressed and sore-hearted as I pictured to myself the great company of ships from many European ports carrying across the Atlantic to our own dear land thousands more of just such forlorn-looking human beings. Presently a gentleman joined me, the father of one of our pupils now in school, and gazed for a while in silence as I had been doing. He is now a prosperous Philadelphia physician, but he came to this country a poor boy from Austria, and is, I believe, a Slav. Apparently he surmised what I was thinking, for he broke the silence to say, "There's not much hope for the older ones, but with the children it will be all right. Our public schools will get hold of them, and when they cross the Atlantic again they will cross in the first cabin."

"Do you think so?" I asked. "I know so," he replied, with a conviction that could be based only upon experience. It was a picture of improvement from a materialistic standpoint that he had drawn, but nevertheless it effectually rebuked my faithless depression. I turned away, glad for the thousandth time that as far as I was personally concerned I had some small share in this great work of lifting the masses. But it behooves all who are interested in the work to have a care that in our eager pursuit of a high scholastic ideal we do not attempt to make bread out of stones. That is an old Satanic temptation and, with the Great Teacher, we would do well to turn our backs upon it. Let us remember the kind of material with which we have to work; for the sake of our country, for the sake of humanity, let us rejoice from our hearts that such material is coming to us; but let us plan at least all our public school conditions accordingly!

THE SIMPLIFICATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

MR. JAMES G. CROSWELL, PRINCIPAL OF THE BREARLEY SCHOOL,
NEW YORK CITY.

"There was once in the land of Israel," says the Talmud, "an exceeding great drouth, and the congregation of Israel gathered together to cry to the Lord for relief. The priests of the temple offered their sacrifice, their psalms, their prayers, their ritual; and the Lord listened not. And the prophets of the Lord prophesied 'Thus saith the Lord,' or 'Thus saith the Lord,' or 'Thus saith the Lord,' and the congregation of Israel waited; but the heavens remained as before. Then the king cried, 'To whom will Jehovah listen?' And in the congregation rose an unknown man, who said, 'O Lord! for the sake of the children which thou hast entrusted to me, be merciful.' And the heavens were filled with abundance of rain. Then said the king, 'Who is this to whom Jehovah listened when the prophets and the priests are unheard?' And he said, 'O king! I am a school teacher.' "

I felt all through Miss Haeseler's paper (if you will allow me to say) that though the Lord may not listen to headmasters—

rarely, if ever, to committees—I am sure He does listen to school teachers who speak for the sake of the children.

It is, I suppose, not our business to go outside the question of the curriculum of preparatory schools; but I confess I feel with her that we have, as heads of preparatory schools, a right to traverse the general condition—that we cannot consider our work strictly as masters of preparatory schools without reckoning with a great American movement which is best seen, perhaps, in its virtue and in its faith, in the school movements, foundations, interests which lie outside and around the more old-fashioned work of the college preparatory school, which nevertheless is tending to overcrowd the work of our children, too. I for one must maintain that I am somewhat baffled by my duties to my girls. There is a general idea that I must furnish to them miscellaneous spiritual experiences of every sort—all that a human being may receive of culture, before they are half-grown, whether they go to college or not. This fact suggests to me to pass the questions which Professor Brumbaugh has touched—I should almost say finished—and take up the matter from the more “patriotic” and general side: “What is the present condition of our American school work which makes simplification of the curriculum so dear to us all, and so difficult for us all to-day?”

Now I am not an expert; but I have brought with me a statement of the facts from one who is an expert. You will pardon me for reading a few sentences as a starting point for my poor words. Here is a book of Professor Paul Hanus, a man whom I esteem very much. It is called “The Modern School.” If he were here I should desire to say to him what I now say. I should appeal to him to state for me what the modern educational spirit is asking, in the chronic drouth of culture, by the mouths of its prophets, and in the ritual of its priests of education in America.

“The education,” says he, “demanded by a democratic society to-day” (notice the word “demanded”) “is an education that prepares youth to overcome the inevitable difficulties that stand in the way of his material and spiritual advancement—an education that from the beginning promotes, first, his physical development through the most salutary environment and appropriate physical training; second, that opens his mind and lets in the world through every natural power of observation

and assimilation—that of hand power as well as head power; that inoculates the appreciation of beauty in nature and in art; that insists upon the performance of duty to self and to others; an education that in youth and early manhood, while continuing the work already done, enables the youth to discover his own powers, his own limitations; that impels him through oft-repeated intellectual analyses or forms of productive effort to look forward to a life of beautiful achievement; that enables him to analyze for himself the intellectual, economic and political problems of his time; that gives the insight, the ministering power, to deal with things as successfully as possible for his own advancement in the social service; and, finally, that causes him to realize that the only way to win and retain the prizes of life" (perhaps I should quarrel with their order in his statement, but Mr. Hanus gives them thus)—"wealth, culture, leisure, honor, in an ever-increasing usefulness and that makes him feel that a life without growth and without service is not worth living."

A most inspiring vision! It goes, does it not, with our American temperament in all things. It resembles somewhat the vision of America's meaning held by Jefferson, as Henry Adams describes it in his "History of America"—that the next step in human progress (which America is to take) is to provide that the average man shall stand on a level with the most favored; and that when that is done (as the next step) this American stands to win a stake that defies mathematics.

But if I must arraign this vision of the new education—of the prophets, the priests, the journalists, the citizens, the parents and myself—all of us when we are in this movement, I should say simply that we do, as a matter of necessity, fall into the blunder of hopeful youth. We do not know the price or care for the price of the fulfillment of our vision.

America has, in this mood, something of the characteristics of a *débutante*, intellectually speaking, who is facing her new perfection with the general idea that it is to occur immediately, probably at the age of twenty—and that there is no doubt of this attainment. Perfection is within the easy reach of her youth, and the Jeffersonic vision may come true, for mere wishings.

For almost immediately "The Modern School" begins to

illustrate this American disregard of the price of perfection. Professor Hanus begins to explain that we must proceed to "bring all life's opportunities into the school-room." This seems to him easy to imagine. To me it seems too large a contract to consider.

"Through elementary natural science we are bringing nature into the school-room," says he. It is a short time since, in my own school, we had an illustration of what may be—bringing nature into the school-room. A large collection of girls were clustering around the teacher, who was giving them a lesson on the barometer—the gray column on the one side, the eager minds on the other. And the children were asking her whether it was raining! a most significant performance. If nature had not been "brought into the school-room" the first impulse of any child would be to look out of doors to see if it was raining.

Another feature of the attempt to prepare for "all of life's opportunities" is that we bring literature into the school as a means of preparation for life. Recently a class in English literature, in one of those great public schools of ours, had Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield* under discussion—about fifty girls sitting as you are sitting there, and an authoritative and (I dare say) cultivated person standing as I am standing here; and she was asking, "Why was the *Vicar of Wakefield* a pathetic story?" "Because he was an old man in prison." "Not a very good answer." "Miss Robinson, why is the *Vicar of Wakefield* pathetic?" "Because the heart is touched." "Why is the *Vicar of Wakefield* pathetic?" I don't remember what the right answer was, but there were seventeen answers before it came, the official answer, "bringing literature into the school" to the satisfaction of the teacher.

It seems to me sometimes as if the fire-drill had become too much the ideal of American schools. It was so stated by the *New York Times*, on an occasion when we certainly needed it in New York, when it figured as the salvation of many. The *Times*, in its enthusiasm, was moved to say: "The great advance in American schooling over the schools of the past is exhibited by the perfection of our fire-drill." But I do not believe that a fire-drill is a model process for the study of literature.

"Elementary study in every field of worthy activity," is the

vision of our contemporary. Professor Hanus not only advances this as the ideal of secondary education, but posits it of elementary education. For example, "We have learned that elementary or pre-secondary education should provide for the normal physical development through appropriate training." I was in a school once where they practiced the "normal physical development," and this was the process: "Seventeenth position, fourth movement; tenth position, fifth movement; eleventh position, third movement: how many children feel refreshed?" I was surprised to find that they nearly all felt refreshed, until I found that those that felt refreshed were allowed to sit down. These are some of the results of having visions, without considering the price of fulfillment.

"We should stimulate and gratify curiosity in every field of worthy human activity,"—*every field of worthy human activity*. "Elementary education should acquaint the pupil with his duties and his privileges as a temporary dependent member of society; it should promote the development of habits of thought and conduct in harmony with his growing insight. At about the age of twelve, the secondary education begins." So we see that gigantic task that is put before the child before he is twelve. We Americans, with all our virtues, have some of the defects of our own qualities; and with this virtue of youth we do have an incomparable belief in what might be called the patent-medicine theory. Our children must take something in the "curriculum" which will atone for all their shortcomings and bad habits—something that we may take with a spoon, as it were; if you cannot have that you do not understand what the school is for. This belief leads us to the overcrowding of our school curriculum.

"How may the school meet the legitimate demands of society?" You see Professor Hanus (whom I again quote as the most sincere, intelligent and most inspiring speaker and writer on this subject I know) says: "How is it the school shall meet the legitimate demands of society?" Yes, he has already got around to this. That great demand of society, that American vision of perfect manhood, is to be realized by the school, the overworked school alone. "The modern school can meet the legitimate demands of society only by attempting to accommodate its aims and methods to the changing needs of progressive civilization." "There is,"

he says, "a great renaissance upon us." That, by the way, is his text for berating the study of the classics—that "a great renaissance is upon us; this renaissance is to be a modern one of a new type, and to contain much more than the inferior performance in the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries possibly could. But, strange to say, this renaissance cannot come off, unless we school teachers meet its "demands." Such is indeed the condition of the American mind on the work of schools in general.

I do not know whether you think I force the parable in comparing our national thirst for culture to the drouth in the land of Israel. There never was a thirst equal to it. It is noticed at once as the great American trait by our judges from Europe who, as some one has said, represent the judgment of posterity. We do want culture, and we want it very much.

Now I propose to consider for a moment the failure and flaw in our own attainment of culture, and our own comprehension of it, and the reasons for that failure. First, our demand on schools, as such, must be reduced. I think that it is absurd to ask from school education such a mass of virtues as I read you a few moments ago at the beginning of Professor Hanus's book. He has put together there all the virtues of heredity; a good many of the gifts of God which are very mysterious; and all the virtues of culture which can be reached by a very long course of a long life of culture—and "demands" them all of the teacher of youth in elementary schools. I think that is a mistake. I think it is a universal mistake in our community. Accordingly we fail of our vision, because we see too much.

Professor Hanus quotes, first, the founders of the republic themselves as having been not wholly successful in their bid for education. He says: "Our faith in education is an inheritance from the founders of the republic." So it is; we have always felt that way; scarcely were we settled on the shores of Massachusetts Bay when this faith was manifested. Professor Hanus gives the thought of Massachusetts as follows, quoting from the law of 1647: "The universal education of youth is essential to the well-being of the State." There it is, you see—the universal, all-round, complete education of youth is essential to the well-being of the State. But second—and here the Pilgrim Fathers came nearer the truth perhaps than we—"the obligation to furnish this education *rests pri-*

marily on the parents, though the State has the right to enforce the obligation;" "the State may determine the kind of education, and fix the minimum amount of education to be insisted on by every member of the commonwealth." And then he shows the story of the Massachusetts schools, how they succeeded and how they failed.

At the present day, like the Pilgrim Fathers, the taxpayers of America are crying to heaven for help, and not only crying but offering their contributions—hundreds of millions of dollars in school property, two hundred millions in a single year—\$235,000,000, the last report; and vast as it is, it is far from being adequate. "Public-spirited citizens" ("voluntary statesmen," as Professor Hanus calls them), "far-sighted men and women" (especially the latter) "are at work," and then many pages he writes illustrating the piety of the appeal, noticing, by the way, the singular dullness of heaven in answering the founders of the kindergarten. Then he goes on to treat the National Educational Association and its committees, and how they came one after the other and made their appeal to heaven to let the rain rain on the drouth of American culture. First was the famous Committee of Ten, which dealt more particularly with improvement in the secondary school curriculum; then there was the Committee of Fifteen, which dealt with correlation of studies; and then there is the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, which undertook to find national norms and units and standardize the education of America as we standardize windows and doors and screws, on the theory that there was a hole in every boy's head just big enough to hold the four orations against Catiline, and that other things, however, should be duly normed and standardized and unified to fill that hole exactly, when Cicero was gone.

Professor Hanus truly said: "They all added to the temporary confusion." I could only testify that having figured somewhat with the Committee of Twelve as an auxiliary and adviser, I am sure that neither heaven nor earth has listened in the least to the Committee of Twelve—that everything we said there we went home and proceeded *not* to do; that the very things that were offered by the Committee of Twelve (for instance, the plans for the study of Latin) were brought to test by very few colleges and teachers; and that those few are now proceeding quietly to undo their experiments. Mean-

while Mr. Hanus says: "The chambers are swept and garnished," and he perceives a dangerous "reactionary tendency" setting in in favor of programs like those of the past.

This, then, is the situation: that there is a real defect in the American educational attainment, and that we have been trying unsuccessfully to meet it by appealing to educational authority, and rather unsuccessfully by continually reforming our paper curriculum. I must disagree, I am sorry to say, with Mr. Hanus, however, on his notion of what the true remedy for our present difficulty will be. He thinks apparently that more theory—more in quantity and better in quality—will finally produce what he calls a "great educational doctrine"—a doctrine of values, which will at once support the workers of the new, and also prevent this confusion and quarreling between the new and the old. He dreams of the appearance of some sort of prophet, as it were, who will explain to us all the whole truth about educational values, and enable us to enrich or to illuminate or to standardize our curriculum significantly and correctly.

I confess that I see not the most remote prospect of that. Two or three such attempts were making this summer. I suppose every one here has read with interest President Hall's two-volume work on "Adolescence."

The "great educational doctrine" (that emerges from what I fear to call a great confusion) is "Recapitulation"; that is, that every boy or girl of us must recapitulate in his life-history the whole history, not of the human race only, but of everything that has happened since the star-dust began to whirl in the universe. The adoption of that principle certainly could not conduce either to the simplification of the curriculum, or to harmony among administrators of schools.

I dare not touch this subject with the vigor that I should like; I am afraid of Dr. Hall's vocabulary. He has many beautiful adjectives in his dictionary, some made from several languages at once. It is not probable that he would hear of our conference; but I can imagine awful consequences if a direct contradiction of his doctrine came to him. But I have recently read Dr. McMurry's address on the subject of simplification of the school curriculum. What he says seems to me to stand upon a better basis than almost anything that has been written on this subject. He points a way at least out of our present confusion in the

matter, and the general tendency of his paper seems to me not only interesting but also to advance the matter a step toward a conclusion.

"First," says he, "whatever can not be shown to have a plain relation to some real need of life—whether it be aesthetic, ethical, or utilitarian—must be dropped from the school curriculum." This seems to me a statement of a principle on which we might simplify very much our present elementary, secondary, and college curriculum. But though it is so suggestive, I should wish to annotate it before putting it into practice. We must carefully define in every case what is meant by a real need of every actual life. As an abstract principle, Dr. McMurry's principle would practically include every subject that can be shown to have any relation to any human life.

Nevertheless, with proper qualifications, this is undoubtedly a correct principle for making curriculum. That the children might "have life and have it more abundantly" is certainly the purpose of any school. It is the crippling of spiritual and intellectual life that it is your profession and mine to contend with. Let us only beware of treating the school curriculum like a bottle of some mystic elixir of life; let us not feel that the school curriculum must cover the whole of a child's existence and give him all his life. Dr. McMurry's principle reversed is a dangerous fallacy, and many school thinkers on education seem to reverse it. Why put into the school curriculum exercises in matters which are actually lived by the children better out of school than in school? You all know what I mean; you know that it is our professional temptation to try to get hold of the whole of a child's life. Teachers often resemble too much in their theorizing people who found hospitals for the abnormal child; we do not trust the American boy to look after any part of himself at all. Now I do not believe personally, from the children I have seen and the children my friends and I were, that childhood now needs so much extra attention from theorists as it is getting. The school curriculum, at any rate, needs not to lay hold so much upon the boy. My school teacher did not know the contents of my pocket, but it was the center of my imaginative life; it was filled with manual training—kite strings and worms, tops that wouldn't spin, pumps that wouldn't pump: it represented adolescence in its natural form. Why should we now try to empty

the boys' pockets into the curriculum of the schools under the name of manual training? I feel equally sure about athletics. I feel suspicious that unless the teacher is actually a boy who has played or is playing the game himself, exercises on the higher athletics in the curriculum can well be suspended.

The second principle of Dr. McMurry is this: "Whatever is not reasonably within a child's comprehension should be omitted." There again I think the principle is theoretically just, but hardly applicable in practice without qualification—that it is very difficult to say what is or is not within any real child's comprehension.

One thing that all our educational prophets seem to agree upon is that Latin, for instance, is objectionable, and not within the child's comprehension. Now practical teachers almost invariably say the reverse—that they themselves find that teaching of Latin is comprehensible to the child. If I were asked to testify, upon oath, I should have to say that I think my children do understand their Latin composition and love it; for they give every psychological and physical evidence that can be exacted, and usually their word in addition.

Dr. McMurry's last point is that "whatever aspects or details are so isolated and irrelevant that they fail to be part of any general idea, should be extracted from the curriculum." Do you think we could find out practically what things are isolated and what are not in any child's mind? And things that drop in a child's mind, like a grain of mustard seed, that have no apparent relation to anything that is there already, no relation to anything in the curriculum, may turn out in the life-story to be the master ideas of his adult activity. We are dealing with children as they grow; we are seeking practical principles for measuring the American curriculum as it grows. It seems that here again, in conference and committee, we should contend for reference to practice, and consultation of actual children in the application of theory.

I come then to my conclusion of the matter: I think America is just now education-intoxicated; that we are reading and writing too much on theory; therefore I think the question of simplifying the curriculum must be handed over, as Professor Brumbaugh hinted, to the treatment of the practical school teacher, and withdrawn from further theoretic discussion. But I think that Dr. McMurry's principles, as far as any theoretic

principle is useful, may furnish the key to the practical problem, when properly discussed and revised by other practical teachers.

The act of teaching—and let me take Dr. McMurry's text and compare it with Thring's great motto—the act of teaching means the transfer of life from the living to the living. In such a transfer the curriculum is nothing; the personality of the teacher is all in all. Mr. Moseley's commission discovered a great preponderance of women in the teaching force in this country. The Executive Committee of this Board has given us only one woman in the discussion; perhaps we should have had more. We should then have heard more from teachers. Women teachers understand the question practically. They know what they are teaching; they know whether the child is learning; they know whether life is passing from them to the class. If the act of teaching be like this—the transfer of life, the act of a creative artist—why should we give ourselves so much pain and anguish over the smaller or greater curriculum. Any curriculum will do its work in the hands of a true teacher—any curriculum that does not stifle the life of the child. We stifle the life of the child when we ask for too much work in the quantity, or too high an intelligence for its performance. The proper ideal of public child culture should require moderate intelligence only, but a constantly developing purpose of industry and continuous purpose. The tendency of a too difficult curriculum is precisely to stifle the purpose—to stifle and distract the children until the last catastrophe, and they cease to believe in their own schooling. In this feature of modern educational progress, I do not believe. I would not say that I do not think we have advanced in our conception of our relation of the school to the community, since I was a child of the public school. I believe that the school house and the teacher in the school are taking a wider and wider part in the life of the community. But though we may have in the future the town library in the school house, though we may have the town and social gatherings of young and old in the school house, though we may have the gossip in and around the school house, though we may have the town athletics and the town drama, I think that they had better not all come into the school curriculum. Let us remember that fulfillment of the great American vision cannot be bought in so cheap a fashion as that.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR ANDREW F. WEST, OF PRINCETON UNIVERSITY, said in substance: In confining my remarks more specifically to the college side as related to the preliminary studies of the secondary schools, it seems to me that if there is anything that has added to the general confusion accompanying the deluge of discussion with which the country has been afflicted since about 1890, it has been found in the succession of well-meaning committees bearing numerical titles.

I speak with some feeling, having done some service toward that result; but I do believe there is now a force at work, gathering volumes more and more, which is going to take us away from this state of things which is so unsatisfactory to every one. That force is not to be found in the host of educational conferences, nor in three-volume or four-volume books on adolescence, or juvenility, or anything of the sort, nor in speculations on the art of teaching, nor in the introducing of fad after fad under the name of systems. Least of all is it to be found in the so-called elective system, which is no system and not elective. It is not a system, because under it the studies are arranged on the basis of a grand negation—a doctrine of impotence on the part of the university to find out what ought to be first, second, third, and so on, in the order of studies. And it is not elective, because it rests on the student's caprice, and, as one brought up in an old Calvinistic boyhood, I do not understand that this easy-going caprice was what was meant by election.

But the new and hopeful force now beginning to work is a plain, old-fashioned, but very much neglected thing. It is the common-sense of parents, teachers and pupils, slowly gravitating toward the grouping of a few things of first value, a few central studies taught amply by the best teachers procurable and conspiring to one end—a great, far-acting and almost forgotten end, namely, an education. This force is already beginning to show itself in happy operation, so that to-day I think we can say this much, that the number of studies taken simultaneously by a pupil is less than it was some ten years ago, that consequently each of these studies is getting room enough to turn around, time enough to show itself to the pupil, time

enough to live long enough with the pupil for him to become personally familiar with it.

If this is the drift of things (and I believe it is) then we are going back,—or better, we are going on with the old saying of Plato to the effect that we do not readily credit anyone with excellence in more than a very few things. So if we can stand on this truth awhile, we shall be able no doubt to keep our heads clear and steady enough to see one more thing, namely, that it is the teachers, the professors, the ones who have already been students, the guides who have gone over the way, who are more likely to know what are the few studies which will be of most service to the mass of students who have not yet gone over the way, than the students who are just setting out on that way. It is the expert who is the guide, the one who himself has seen the way backward after he has traversed it, and not only forward before he has ever set foot on it. Such persons alone are fit to select the studies which compose the best available curriculum, and if they do not know enough to do this they ought to go into some other business.

Is not this about all there is to strive for,—simplicity of purpose, a few central studies conspiring to give an education, a school course which will serve as a base for the whole after-life? The few things that act together all the way; that correspond to and exercise the central functions of the human mind,—these, and these alone, make an education. In spite of the confusion, I believe the schools and the colleges will yet be able to see clearly enough what those few things are that experience points out as the best; for here, as in other things, the test of time reveals the truth, and studies that have not lasted long enough to stand the test of time have not stood one of the tests necessary to reveal whether or no they are studies of permanent value. So I believe that if we can stand firmly on the foundation-truth that there are in education a few things of first value for most students and that the things of first value should come first, and that these studies are intellectually the Kingdom of Heaven which should be sought first,—then, if that is sought first, and sought steadily, and sought surely, all these other things, culture, refinement, and freedom, shall be added unto us.

PRESIDENT JOSEPH SWAIN, OF SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.—Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen: I only want to take a half minute of the time that remains, and that is to say, as a college man, I am clearly of the conviction that the colleges should place more confidence in the ability of the high schools to tell us what are the proper requirements for college. I am perfectly satisfied with the point of view that was presented in the excellent paper of the practical teacher from the Girls' High School of Philadelphia.

PRESIDENT ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, OF LAFAYETTE COLLEGE.—Permit me to say a word in continuation of this discussion. I am better able to speak from the point of view of a parent than from that of a teacher. When my oldest child reached the stage in the grammar grades of the public school that he rose from ten to eleven subjects, I despaired. After careful consideration I went to the principal of a private school and said: "I want to send my boy to you, but upon the condition that he has only four branches of study." Not without demurring, he took the boy. He has followed my plans and the boy, who is just thirteen, now easily carries his Virgil, Greek, German and algebra.

During the year 1902 to 1903 I had my children with me in Germany and had the opportunity of seeing a good deal of German school work from the kindergarten to the gymnasium. I am satisfied that the work done is better than ours, chiefly because of the greater concentration and consecutiveness of the work and the larger amount of language study.

Nevertheless, I am satisfied that simplification of school programs in America can only be secured by differentiation. For me, the more language study the better; the more and the earlier. Much as I want good English, I would sacrifice much of the present teaching of "English classics" if thereby I could get really good Latin and Greek prose composition. But for the boy who does not want Latin, whose father does not see any use in dead languages, and whose beginnings have been wrecked at the hands of an incompetent teacher of Latin, I would have a parallel course. Let the reformer, the improver of courses, lay to heart the fact that the best teaching, the very best teaching, by the most experienced teachers, is demanded at the opening of the Latin book, at the first adventure

with symbolic mathematics, at the opening of the course in algebra. What of those whose way is barred by poor teaching in the best subjects till an invincible hatred is begotten? What of those whose home influences resolutely will have sciences in the school?

For the good of both parties I hold a differentiation is necessary; an ideal course with the classics and mathematics as the great disciplinary care and a very little added to keep English and modern culture always just in sight; and an alternative course based on modern languages and the sciences. There is room for a constructive genius here. He who will devise a rational, well-articulated course, equal in educational value, out of these elements will win the applause of parents and teachers alike. The trouble with all the work in this field heretofore has been that every fad has had its fancier and every term has given a new turn to the kaleidoscope.

THE PRESIDENT.—The Chair recognizes the Chair for just a moment. He was a teacher in college for sixteen years. He knows the seriousness of the point to which the last speaker has made reference. He, too, has many times complained against the poor teaching that has been given to many of the students who come up to college. The Chair knows the other side of the story as told in the testimony of the most earnest students going from the preparatory schools—students who too often protest that they are required to continue their studies, particularly in Latin, under the instruction of professors who seem to be not at all interested in the subject.

MR. WILLIAM W. BIRDSALL, PRINCIPAL OF THE PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—There is one phase of the matter that ought to be considered here, and before I mention that I want to say that I wish Dr. Brumbaugh had asked those heads of secondary schools for what colleges they regularly and successfully prepared pupils. I think the answers to that question would have been an exceedingly interesting commentary upon their judgment as to whether they are able successfully to prepare pupils for college.

One of the functions of secondary education, I feel sure, is to develop and to change the aims and purposes of the young people under instruction; and I have always therefore

held that it is a crime against youth at the opening of the secondary school course to say: "Here! you sheep go into this college preparatory course, and you goats go into this other." The crime is the greater in that there is very little climbing over the fence that separates one of those ways from the other. My experience differs from Dr. Warfield's in that I have known many a boy who was dragged by main strength through the gate to Cæsar, who limped and stumbled over Cæsar's bridge, but who began to see some sense in Latin when he had been forced into Cicero, was happy in his Virgil, and who became a classical scholar.

I taught for many years in a secondary school from which we sent many boys to college. It was different from most college preparatory schools in this, that our constituency was not very largely, and not at all exclusively, from that class of the community which intends to send its sons to college; and I conceive that it was the greatest work of that school in those years—the very greatest work of that school,—to *convert* numbers of young men, who woke up at the end of their course overjoyed to find that whereas they previously had no intention of so doing they were now prepared to enter college.

I conceive that one of the greatest difficulties under which we labor in the institution in which I have the honor and pleasure to work is exactly the difficulty that we cannot readily meet this situation. Throughout we have the rather Presbyterian doctrine of election; the people are foreordained, if not from the beginning of the world at least from the beginning of the high school course; and my heart bleeds when a school girl comes to me and says: "Oh! I find I want to go to college; how shall I make up the deficiencies of these last three years of general education?"

These are some of the problems that those of us who are in secondary school work must think out and see our way through.

MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS.

First Session, Friday, November 25th.

The President appointed the following temporary committees:

On Audit: Dr. Boothe C. Davis, of Alfred University; Dr. J. Eugene Baker, of the Friends' Central High School, Philadelphia.

On Nominations: Mr. William W. Birdsall, of the Philadelphia High School for Girls; Dr. Julius Sachs, of New York City; Professor Henry D. Thompson, of Princeton University, and President John H. Harris, of Bucknell University.

Fourth Session, Saturday, November 26th.

DR. JOHN B. KIEFFER, Treasurer, read his report as follows:

To the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

GENTLEMEN: I beg to present my report of the state of the treasury of your Association for the year 1903-04, now ended, with a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures, and the necessary corresponding vouchers.

The receipts for the year amounted to \$1,454.16, and the expenditures to \$306.69, leaving an apparent balance of \$1,147.47. Against this apparent balance, however, I have in my hands belated, but approved, bills for publishing the proceedings of the convention of 1903, amounting to \$363.97. These I have included amongst the vouchers for my report. When they have been paid the true balance for the year in my hands will be \$783.50.

I append a summary of receipts and expenditures, analyzed as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Balance in hand November 27, 1903.....	\$649 16
Membership dues for 1899-1900, 1 school.....	5 00
Membership dues for 1900-1901, 2 schools.....	10 00
Membership dues for 1901-1902, 2 schools.....	10 00
Membership dues for 1902-1903, 13 schools.....	65 00
Membership dues for 1903-1904, 139 schools.....	695 00
Membership dues for 1904-1905, 4 schools.....	20 00
Amount of receipts.....	\$1454 16

DISBURSEMENTS.

For Executive Committee meetings.....	\$70 66
For reporters, stenographers, clerks, and typewriters	141 65
For postage and expressage.....	136 03
For printing and stationery.....	322 32
Amount of disbursements	<u>\$670 66</u>
Leaving in my hands an actual balance of.....	<u>\$783 50</u>
The accounts balancing.....	<u>\$1454 16</u>

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN B. KIEFFER, *Treasurer.*

Lancaster, Pa., November 23, 1904.

THE PRESIDENT.—\$783.50 is certainly a remarkable balance in an association of this kind, and we are under great obligations to Dr. Kieffer for his services.

THE SECRETARY.—I have a report of the Auditing Committee in writing, which states that the accounts of the Treasurer have been examined and found correct.

This report was, on motion, accepted.

REPORT OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE.

Chairman W. W. Birdsall reported as follows for the committee:

For the officers of the Association for the year 1904-05 we suggest these gentlemen:

President, President Rush Rhees, Rochester University, Rochester, N. Y.

Vice-Presidents, President James D. Moffatt, Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.; Dr. S. A. Farrand, Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.; President Thomas Fell, St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.; Principal Charles D. Larkins, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. William H. Klapp, Headmaster of the Episcopal Academy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Secretary, Professor Arthur Hobson Quinn, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Treasurer, Professor John B. Kieffer, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.

Executive Committee (President, Secretary and Treasurer, ex-officio), Dr. Truman J. Backus, Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.; President Austin Scott, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J.; Professor Herman V. Ames, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.; Dr. James Sullivan, High School of Commerce, New York City.

The Secretary was, on motion, instructed to cast a ballot in the name of the Association for the above-named officers, and they were accordingly declared elected.

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The Executive Committee reported as follows through the Secretary:

Three resolutions were referred to the Executive Committee at the last meeting of the Association, held at Columbia University, November 27th and 28th, 1903.

First resolution. *Resolved*, That it is the sense of the Association that one session of its annual convention shall be devoted to sectional meetings.

Second resolution. *Resolved*, That athletics should be an integral part of secondary education, provided that they be under competent medical supervision, and provided also that in their business management they be fully subjected to school authority.

Acting under the instructions of the Executive Committee, the Secretary sent a copy of these resolutions to the members of the Association, requesting the opinion of the heads of each institution having membership in the Association upon the merits of the resolutions. He reported at a later meeting of the Executive Committee that about forty replies had been received, and that a majority of these replies were in favor of both resolutions.

It was the sense of the committee that as the vote was not sufficient to represent the general opinion of the Association, the matter should be laid on the table for the present.

The following resolution was also introduced and referred to the Executive Committee:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be requested to consider the question of athletics (especially football) with authority to appoint a special committee to investigate the subject and report to the next meeting.

After discussion at both meetings of the Executive Committee the resolution was laid on the table.

This report was, on motion, accepted.

The president appointed as representatives of the secondary schools on the College Entrance Examination Board: Messrs. J. G. Croswell, of New York; Wilson Farrand, of Newark; J. L. Patterson, of Philadelphia; Julius Sachs, of New York; and Randall Spaulding, of Montclair.

NEW BUSINESS.

MR. WILLIAM W. BIRDSALL.—The Executive Committee had brought before it by Professor Ames a proposition looking to a small payment to be made to the two executive officers of the Association, who are engaged throughout the year in considerable labor in its behalf. The treasury of the Association, as was pointed out by Dr. Ames and as we have noticed this morning, would seem to be in condition to justify us in making some such partial compensation. There were two members of the Executive Committee who took no part in this discussion, and, so far as I know, have expressed no approval of it: I mean, of course, Professor Quinn and Professor Kieffer; but the other members of the Executive Committee have expressed unanimous approval of the resolution which I am about to offer—which I cannot offer formally from the Executive Committee because it did not take formal action upon the matter, owing to the fact that I have just indicated, but which I desire to offer personally and with the approval of the other members of the Executive Committee who have been present:

Resolved, That from and after the meeting of the Association of 1904 the Secretary of this Association be paid one hundred dollars per annum and the Treasurer fifty dollars per annum."

I offer this resolution, and move its adoption.

The motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

DR. JULIUS SACHS.—It is customary at the close of each annual meeting of our Association to extend to the local authorities our recognition of their hospitable entertainment. We have always hitherto had the good fortune to find the institutions that extended the invitation to us most generous in their hospitality. Never, however, have we experienced a more wholesouled and charming entertainment than during the past two days. I beg leave, therefore, to offer the following resolution: That in view of the delightful hospitality extended to us by the president and the authorities of Princeton University, a hospitality that has charmed all of the visiting delegates, the thanks of this Association be extended to President Woodrow Wilson and the Faculty of Princeton University by this Association.

This resolution was adopted and the meeting adjourned.

The next meeting of the Association will be held at Annapolis, Maryland, December 1 and 2, 1905, under the auspices of St. John's College.

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION 1903-04.

President

DR. TRUMAN J. BACKUS, Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Vice-Presidents

Dean LAURA D. GILL, Barnard College, New York.
Principal CHARLES W. EVANS, East Orange (N. J.) High School.

President JOSEPH SWAIN, Swarthmore College, Penna.
Principal HARLAN UPDEGRAFF, Girls' Latin School, Baltimore, Md.

Professor J. MACBRIDE STERRITT, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

Secretary

Professor ARTHUR HOBSON QUINN, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Treasurer

Professor JOHN B. KIEFFER, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.

Executive Committee

President, secretary and treasurer, ex-officio.

President IRA REMSEN, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Professor HERMAN V. AMES, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Inspector CHARLES F. WHEELOCK, University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.

Principal WILLIAM M. BIRDSALL, Girls' High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR 1904.

Proceedings of the seventeenth annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Columbia University, New York, November 27-28, 1903.

Address of welcome by President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University.

Response by President Ira Remsen, Johns Hopkins University.

The Elective System in Secondary Schools: Superintendent William H. Maxwell, New York City; Principal Harlan Updegraff, Girls' Latin School, Baltimore, Md.; Principal W. C. Joslin, High School, New Brunswick, N. J.; Professor Charles De Garmo, Cornell University.

Discussion: Mr. Phoebus W. Lyon, West Jersey Academy, Bridgeton, N. J.; Professor E. G. Sihler, New York University; President John H. Harris, Bucknell University.

What Should be the Length of the College Course? Dean Josiah H. Penniman, College of the University of Pennsylvania; President Rush Rhees, Rochester University; Dean Andrew F. West, Graduate School of Princeton University; President J. G. Schurman, Cornell University; President A. V. V. Raymond, Union University; President James M. Taylor, Vassar College.

Discussion: Professor E. G. Sihler, New York University; Dr. Julius Sachs, Sachs' Collegiate Institute, New York; Professor Charles de Garmo, Cornell University; Professor Edward Everett Hale, Jr., Union University; Principal William W. Birdsall, Girls' High School, Philadelphia; President John H. Harris, Bucknell University; Dr. James Sullivan, High School of Commerce, New York.

President's address: Some Unsolved Educational Problems: President Ira Remsen, Johns Hopkins University.

Athletics in Their Mutual Relations to Schools and Colleges: Headmaster Endicott Peabody, Groton (Mass.) School; Professor Thomas D. Wood, M. D., Teachers' College, Columbia University; Dr. George L. Meylan, Medical Director of Gymnasium, Columbia University; Mr. Charles E. Hammett, Director of Physical Education, Tome Institute, Port Deposit, Md.

Discussion: Mr. Thompson H. Landon, Bordentown (N. J.) Military Institute; Professor Marston T. Bogert, Columbia University; Miss Mary B. Hervey, Wadleigh High School, New York; President Joseph H. Apple, Woman's College, Frederick, Md.; Miss Mary Sicard Jenkins, Halsted School, Yonkers, N. Y.; Principal Virgil Prettyman, Horace Mann High School, New York; Inspector E. W. Lytle, University of the State of New York; Principal Charles D. Larkins, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Edith Wallis, Rosemary Hall, Greenwich, Conn.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1904-5

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Albany, N. Y.	St. Agnes School	Catharine Regina Seabury.
Albany, N. Y.	Univ. of the State of N. Y.	H. H. Horner, Secretary to the Commissioner.
Alfred, N. Y.	Alfred University	Boothe C. Davis, Ph.D.
Allegheny, Pa.	Allegheny Preparatory School.	James Winne, M.A.
Allegheny, Pa.	Western University of Pa.	John A. Brashear, D.Sc., LL.D.
Allentown, Pa.	Muhlenberg College	Rev. John A. W. Haas, D.D.
Annandale, N. Y.	St. Stephen's College	Rev. Thomas R. Harris, D.D.
Annapolis, Md.	St. John's College	Thomas Fell, Ph.D., LL.D.
Annville, Pa.	Lebanon Valley College	Hervin C. Roop, M.A., Ph.D.
Asbury Park, N. J.	Asbury Park High School	Frederick S. Shepherd, Ph.D.
Aurora, N. Y.	Wells College	Rev. Geo. Morgan Ward, M.A., D.D.
Baltimore, Md. (714 St. Paul St.)	Arundell School for Girls	Elizabeth Maxwell Carroll, B.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Baltimore City College	Francis A. Soper, M.A.
Baltimore, Md. (311 Courtland Sa.)	Baltimore Polytechnic Institute.	William R. King, U.S.N.
Baltimore, Md. (Cathedral and Preston Sts.)	Bryn Mawr School	Edith Hamilton, M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	(The) Country School	S. Wardwell Kinney, B.A., M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Friends' School	E. C. Wilson, B.S.
Baltimore, Md. (24th and St. Paul's Sts.)	Girls' Latin School	Harlan Updegraff, M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Johns Hopkins University	Ira Remsen, M.D., Ph.D., LL.D.
Baltimore, Md.	Woman's College	J. F. Goucher, LL.D.
Bayonne, N. J.	Bayonne City High School ...	P. H. Smith, Ph.B.
Beaver, Pa.	Beaver Coll. and Mus. Inst.	Rev. Arthur Staples, M.A., B.D.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Bethlehem Preparatory School.	H. A. Foering, B.S.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Moravian Parochial School ...	Albert G. Rau, M.S.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Moravian Seminary	J. Max Hark, D.D.
Beverly, N. J.	Farnum Preparatory School	James B. Dilkes, M.A. } Miss N. J. Davis. } Miss S. M. Galaher, M.A.
Birmingham, Pa.	Birmingham School	John C. Sharpe.
Blairstown, N. J.	Blair Presbyterian Academy...	Rev. S. B. Linhart.
Blairsville, Pa.	Blairsville College	Rev. Thompson H. Landon, M.A.
Bordentown, N. J.	Bordentown Military Inst.	Phoebus W. Lyon, M.A.
Bridgeton, N. J.	West Jersey Academy	
Brooklyn, N. Y. (Clifton Pl., St. James Pl. and Lafayette Av.)	Adelphi College	Charles H. Levermore, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (183 Lincoln Pl.)	Berkeley Institute	Julian W. Abernethy, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Boys' High School	John Mickleborough, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (Drigg's Av. and S. 3d St.)	Eastern District High School..	William T. Vlymen, A.M., Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Erasmus Hall High School ...	W. B. Gunnison.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Girls' High School	W. L. Felter, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Manual Training High School.	Charles D. Larkins, Ph.B.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Packer Institute	Truman J. Backus, LL.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (99 Livingston St.)	Polytechnic Prep. School	Francis Ransom Lane.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Pratt Institute	G. P. Hitchcock.
Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Bryn Mawr College	Miss M. Carey Thomas, Ph.D., LL.D.
Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Miss Baldwin's School	Florence Baldwin, Ph.B.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Canisius College	Aloysius Pfeil.
Burlington, N. J.	St. Mary's Hall	John Fearnley, M.A.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1904-05 (CONTINUED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Canandaigua, N. Y.	Granger Place School	Samuel C. Fairley.
Canton, N. Y.	St. Lawrence University	Almon Gunnison, D.D., LL.D.
Carlisle, Pa.	Dickinson College	George Edward Reed, D.D., LL.D.
Chambersburg, Pa.	Chambersburg Academy	D. Edgar Rice, M.A.
Chambersburg, Pa.	Wilson College	M. H. Reaser, Ph.D.
Chester, Pa.	Chester High School	T. S. Cole, M.A.
Chestertown, Md.	Washington College	James W. Cain, LL.D.
Chestnut Hill, Pa.	Chestnut Hill Academy	James L. Patterson.
Clinton, N. Y.	Hamilton College	M. Woolsey Stryker, D.D., LL.D.
Collegeville, Pa.	Ursinus College	Henry T. Spangler, D.D.
Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.	The Mackenzie School	Rev. James C. Mackenzie, Ph. D.
Dover, Del.	Conference Academy	E. L. Cross.
East Orange, N. J.	East Orange High School	Charles W. Evans.
Easton, Pa.	Easton High School	B. F. Sandt.
Easton, Pa.	Lafayette College	Ethelbert D. Warfield, LL.D.
Elizabeth, N. J.	Pingry School	W. R. Marsh, B.A.
Frederick, Md.	Woman's College	Joseph H. Apple, M.A.
Garden City, L. I.	St. Paul's School	Frederick L. Gamage, M.A.
Geneva, N. Y.	Hobart College	Rev. Langdon C. Stewardson, LL.D.
George School, Pa.	George School	J. S. Walton, Ph.D.
Georgetown, D. C.	Georgetown College	Father J. D. Whitney.
Germantown, Pa. (Coulter St.)	Friends' School	Davis H. Forsythe.
Germantown, Pa.	Germantown Academy	William Kershaw, Ph.D.
Hamilton, N. Y.	Colgate Academy	Frank L. Shepardson, M.A.
Hamilton, N. Y.	Colgate University	George E. Merrill, D.D., LL.D.
Haverford, Pa.	Haverford College	Isaac Sharpless, D.Sc., LL.D.
Haverford, Pa.	Haverford College Grammar School	Charles S. Crossman, B.A., LL.B.
Hightstown, N. J.	Peddie Institute	Roger W. Swetland, B.A.
Ithaca, N. Y.	Cornell University	J. G. Schurman, M.A., D.Sc., LL.D.
Lancaster, Pa.	Franklin and Marshall College.	John S. Stahr, Ph.D., D.D.
Lancaster, Pa.	Miss Stahr's School	Helen Russel Stahr, B.A.
Lancaster, Pa.	Yeates Institute	Rev. Frederick Gardiner.
Lawrenceville, N. J.	Lawrenceville School	S. J. McPherson, Ph.D.
Lewisburg, Pa.	Bucknell University	John H. Harris, D.D.
Lititz, Pa.	Linden Hall Seminary	Rev. Charles D. Kreider, B.A.
McDonogh, Md.	McDonogh School	Sidney T. Moreland.
Meadville, Pa.	Allegheny College	William H. Crawford, D.D.
Mercersburg, Pa.	Mercersburg Academy	William Man Irvine, Ph.D.
Mohegan, N. Y.	Mohegan Lake School	{ Henry Waters, M.A., Albert E. Linder, M.A.
Montclair, N. J.	Montclair Military Academy.	John G. Mac Vicar.
Montclair, N. J.	Montclair Public School	Randall Spaulding, B.A.
Morristown, N. J.	Morristown School	Francis C. Woodman.
Myerstown, Pa.	Albright College	James D. Woodring, M.A., D.D.
New Brighton, N. Y.	Staten Island Academy	Frederick E. Partington, M.A.
New Brunswick, N. J.	Rutgers College	Austin Scott, Ph.D., LL.D.
New Brunswick, N. J.	Rutgers Preparatory Academy.	Eliot R. Payson, Ph.D.
New York City (721 St. Nicholas Av.)	Barnard School for Boys	Wm. Livingston Hazen, B.A., LL.B.
New York City (17 W. 44th St.)	Brearley School	J. G. Croswell, B.A.
New York City (721 Madison Av.)	Chapin Collegiate School	Henry B. Chapin, Ph.D., D.D.
New York City	College of the City of New York	John M. Finley, Ph.D., LL.D.
New York City (30 W. 16th St.)	College of St. Francis Xavier.	Rev. D. W. Hearn, S.J.
New York City (241 W. 77th St.)	Collegiate School	L. C. Mygatt, M.A., L.H.D.

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LIST OF MEMBERS, 1904-05 (CONTINUED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
New York City (34 and 36 E. 51st St.)	Columbia Grammar School ...	Benjamin Howell Campbell, M.A.
New York City	Columbia University	Nicholas Murray Butler, Ph.D., LL.D.
New York City (20 E. 50th St.)	Cutler School	A. H. Cutler, B.A., Ph.D.
New York City (60 W. 13th St.)	De Witt Clinton High School.	John T. Buchanan, M.A.
New York City (116 W. 50th St.)	Dr. J. Sachs' School for Girls	Julius Sachs, B.A., Ph.D.
New York City (226 E. 16th St.)	Friends' Seminary	Edward B. Rawson, B.S.
New York City (35 W. 84th St.)	Irving School	Louis Dwight Ray, M.A., Ph.D.
New York City (65 E. 83d St.)	Loyola School	Rev. J. Harding Fisher, S. J.
New York City (Grand Boulevard and 131st St.)	Manhattan College	Brother Jerome.
New York City (340 W. 86th St.)	Misses Ely's School	Elizabeth L. Ely.
New York City (176 W. 75th St.)	Misses Rayson's School	Amy Rayson.
New York City (Boston Road and 166th St.)	Morris High School	Edward J. Goodwin, Lit.D.
New York City (Park Av. and 68th St.)	Normal College	Thomas Hunter, Ph.D.
New York City	New York University	Henry M. MacCracken, D.D., LL.D.
New York City (38 W. 59th St.)	Sachs' Collegiate Institute ...	Otto Koenig, J.U.D.
New York City (114th St. and 7th Av.)	Wadleigh High School	John G. Wight, Ph.D.
Newark, Del.	Delaware College	George A. Harter, M.A., Ph.D.
Newark, N. J.	Newark Academy	{ S. A. Farrand, Ph.D. Wilson Farrand.
Newark, N. J.	Newark Public High School..	W. E. Stearns, M.A.
N. Plainfield, N. J.	High School	H. J. Wightman.
Ocean Grove, N. J.	Neptune Township High School	L. A. Doren.
Ogontz, Pa.	Cheltenham Academy	Arthur T. Emory, B.A.
Orange, N. J.	Dearborn-Morgan School	David A. Kennedy, Ph.D.
Ossining, N. Y.	Dr. Holbrook's School	Dwight Holbrook, Ph.D.
Ossining, N. Y.	Mt. Pleasant Academy	C. F. Brusie, M.A.
Palmyra, N. Y.	Classical High School	W. J. Deans.
Paterson, N. J.	Paterson High School	J. A. Reinhart.
Pennsburg, Pa.	Perkiomen Seminary	Rev. O. S. Kriebel, M.A.
Philadelphia (2011 De Lancey Pl.)	(The) Agnes Irwin School ...	Sophy Dallas Irwin.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Drexel Institute of Art, Science and Industry	James MacAlister, LL.D.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Episcopal Academy	William H. Klapp, M.A., M.D.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Friends' Central High School.	{ Boys' Dep't, J. Eugene Baker. Girls' Dep't, Anna W. Speakman.
Philadelphia (15th and Race Sts.)	Friends' Select School	J. Henry Bartlett.
Philadelphia (17th and Spring Garden Sts.)	Girls' High School	W. W. Birdsall.
Philadelphia (2011 De Lancey Pl.)	Miss Agnes Irwin's School ...	Agnes Irwin.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Northeast Manual Training School	Andrew J. Morrison, Ph.D.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1904-05 (CONCLUDED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Philadelphia (1720 Arch St.)	Philadelphia Collegiate Institute for Girls	Susan C. Lodge.
Philadelphia (13th and Spring Garden Sta.)	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls	J. Monroe Willard.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Temple College	Rev. R. H. Conwell.
Philadelphia, Pa.	University of Pennsylvania	Charles C. Harrison, LL.D.
Pittsburg, Pa.	Alinda Preparatory School	Ella Gordon Stuart.
Pittsburg, Pa.	Central High School	Charles B. Wood, M.A.
Pittsburg, Pa. (Shady Av.)	Shady Side Academy	W. R. Crabbe, Ph.D.
Plainfield, N. J.	Thurston Preparatory School	Alice M. Thurston.
Port Deposit, Md.	Stillman High School	I. W. Travell.
Pottstown, Pa.	Tome Institute	A. W. Harris, Ph.D., D.Sc.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	Hill School	John Meigs, Ph.D.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	Riverview Academy	J. B. Bisbee, M.A.
Princeton, N. J.	Vassar College	James M. Taylor, D.D., LL.D.
Princeton, N. J.	Princeton University	Woodrow Wilson, LL.D.
Reading, Pa.	Boys' High School	Robert S. Birch, B.A.
Redbank, N. J.	High School	S. V. Arrowsmith.
Rochester, N. Y.	University of Rochester	Rush Rhees, LL.D.
Rye, N. Y.	Rye Seminary	Mrs. Life and the Misses Stowe.
Schenectady, N. Y.	Schenectady High School	Arthur Marvin, M.A.
Schenectady, N. Y.	Union University	A. V. V. Raymond, D.D., LL.D.
S. Bethlehem, Pa.	Lehigh University	
State College, Pa.	Pennsylvania State College	George W. Atherton, LL.D.
Summit, N. J.	Kent Place School	Sarah Woodman Paul.
Swarthmore, Pa.	Swarthmore College	Joseph Swain, LL.D.
Swarthmore, Pa.	Swarthmore Prep. School	Arthur H. Tomlinson.
Syracuse, N. Y.	Syracuse University	Rev. Jas. Roscoe Day, S.T.D., LL.D.
Trenton, N. J.	State Model School	James M. Green, Ph.D.
Troy, N. Y.	Emma Willard School	Anna Leach, M.A.
Utica, N. Y.	The Balliol School	{ Mrs. Louise Sheffield Brownell Saunders, B.A. Edith Rockwell Hall, B.A.
Utica, N. Y.	Utica Free Academy	Martin G. Benedict, M.A., Ph.D.
Warren, Pa.	Warren High School	W. L. MacGowan.
Washington, D. C.	Columbian University	Charles W. Needham, D.D., LL.D.
Washington, D. C.	Friends' Select School	{ Thomas W. Sidwell. Frances Haldeman Sidwell.
Washington, D. C.	Gallaudet College	Edw. Minor Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D.
Washington, D. C. (Wisconsin Av.)	Howard University	Rev. John Gordon, D.D.
Washington, Pa.	The Washington School for Boys	Louis L. Hooper.
Washington, Pa.	Trinity Hall	William W. Smith.
Washington, Pa.	Washington and Jefferson College	
Wayne, Pa.	St. Luke's School	James D. Moffatt, D.D.
Waynesburg, Pa.	Waynesburg College	Charles Henry Strout, M.A.
West Chester, Pa.	State Normal School	A. F. Lewis, A.M.
West Chester, Pa.	West Chester High School	G. M. Phillips, M.A., Ph.D.
Westminster, Md.	Western Maryland College	Addison L. Jones, M.A.
Westtown, Pa.	Westtown School	T. H. Lewis.
Wilmington, Del.	Friends' School	Edward G. Smedley.
Wilmington, Del.	High School	Herschel A. Norris, M.A.
Yonkers, N. Y.	Halsted School	A. H. Berlin.
Yonkers, N. Y.	Yonkers High School	Mary S. Jenkins.
York, Pa.	Collegiate Institute	William A. Edwards.
		E. T. Jeffers.

DELEGATES REGISTERED, 1904.

- ALBRIGHT COLLEGE, Myerstown, Pa.** Clellan A. Bowman, Aaron E. Dibble.
- ALFRED UNIVERSITY, Alfred, N. Y.** President Boothe Colwell Davis.
- ALINDA PREPARATORY SCHOOL, Pittsburg, Pa.** Ella Gordon Stuart.
- BERKELEY INSTITUTE, Brooklyn, N. Y.** Principal J. W. Abernethy.
- BETHLEHEM PREPARATORY SCHOOL, Bethlehem, Pa.** H. S. Houskeeper.
- BIRMINGHAM SCHOOL, Birmingham, Pa.** James G. Miller, Mrs. James G. Miller.
- BLAIR ACADEMY, Blairstown, N. J.** Rev. John C. Sharpe.
- BLAIRSVILLE COLLEGE, Blairsville, Pa.** Rev. S. B. Linhart, president.
- BORDENTOWN MILITARY INSTITUTE, Bordentown, N. J.** S. W. Landon, head master.
- BREARLEY SCHOOL, New York City.** Principal James G. Croswell.
- BUCKNELL UNIVERSITY, Lewisburg, Pa.** President John Howard Harris.
- CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, Philadelphia, Pa.** Cheesman A. Herrick, Ellwood C. Parry, Jonathan T. Rorer.
- CENTRAL MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL, Philadelphia, Pa.** George Astley, H. Clay Borden, Albert B. Entwistle, J. Logan Fitts, Henry W. Hetzel, William L. Sayre, principal.
- CHAMBERSBURG ACADEMY, Chambersburg, Pa.** D. Edgar Rice.
- CHELTON HILLS SCHOOL, Wyncote, Pa.** Edith McCarthy.
- CHESTNUT HILL ACADEMY, Chestnut Hill, Pa.** J. L. Patterson, head master.
- COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, New York.** Barclay W. Bradley, Walter E. Clark, Charles A. Downer, John H. Finley, president, Fitzgerald Tisdall, Arthur B. Turner.
- COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, New York City.** Thomas S. Fiske, Nelson G. McCrea, Calvin Thomas, Mrs. Calvin Thomas.
- CORNELL UNIVERSITY, Ithaca, N. Y.** Charles De Garmo.
- COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, Philadelphia, Pa.** Lucille Andrews, Margaret Askam, A. C. Beitler, Laura H. Cadwallader, Mabel Dickson Cherry, E. Davis, Louise Ehlers, Beulah A. Fenimore, Viola E. Godfrey, Emily L. Graham, principal; Mary D. Griffith, Maude B. Hansche, Mary S. Holmes, Emilie Breyg Hill, E. R. Patton, Elizabeth Lodor, Emma J. Longstreth, Caroline N. Keeler, Lily McLean, Eda May Peirce, Mary I. Saybolt, Mary Shea, Mary G. Umsted.
- CURTIS HIGH SCHOOL, New Brighton, Staten Island, N. Y.** Oliver D. Clark.
- DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, New York City.** Donald C. Mac Laren, Frederick Monteser, Ernest Riess, Jesse E. Whitsit.
- DR. HOLBROOK'S SCHOOL, Ossining, N. Y.** Dwight Holbrook, principal.
- DR. JULIUS SACHS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, New York City.** Julius Sachs, principal.
- EASTERN DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn, N. Y.** John A. Bole.
- EPISCOPAL ACADEMY, Philadelphia, Pa.** William H. Klapp, head master.
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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NINETEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

**Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools
of the Middle States and Maryland**

1905

HELD AT ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE, ANNAPOLIS, MD.

FRIDAY AND SATURDAY, DECEMBER 1st and 2nd, 1905

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

1906

C. Howland, William A. Lamberton, Morris Jastrow, Arthur H. Quinn, Daniel B. Shumway.

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Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland

**NINETEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION
HELD AT ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE, ANNAPOLIS, MARYLAND
DECEMBER 1ST AND 2ND, 1906**

SUMMARY OF SESSIONS

**First Session, Friday, December 1st, at 11 a. m. in McDowell
Hall.**

Address of welcome:

President THOMAS FELL, St. John's College.

Response:

President RUSH RHEES, University of Rochester.

Topic: The Proper Place in American Education for Instruction in Commercial and Industrial Subjects.

Dr. CHEESMAN A. HERRICK, Director of the School of Commerce, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Professor JAMES T. YOUNG, Director of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Mr. JOHN H. CONVERSE, of Philadelphia.

General Discussion:

Professor JACOB H. HOLLANDER, Johns Hopkins University.

1 P. M. Luncheon tendered to the delegates by St. John's College in the College Dining Hall.

**Second Session, Friday, December 1st, at 2.30 p. m. in McDowell
Hall**

Topic: Should Colleges and Universities Refuse to Allow Any Student to Compete in an Intercollegiate Athletic Contest Until He Shall Have Completed One Year's Work?

Professor VICTOR H. LANE, University of Michigan.

Reverend CHARLES B. MACKSEY, S.J., Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.

Dr. ALBERT L. SHARPE, Medical Director of the William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, Pa.

General Discussion:

Professor B. V. CISSEL, St. John's College, Annapolis,
Md.

Rev. THOMPSON H. LANDON, Bordentown Military In-
stitute, Bordentown, N. J.

President ETHELBERT D. WARFIELD, Lafayette College,
Easton, Pa.

Chancellor SAMUEL B. MCCORMICK, Western University
of Pennsylvania, Allegheny, Pa.

**Third Session, Friday, December 1st, at 8 p.m. in the House
of Delegates, State House**

President's Address: Secondary English Once More.

President RUSH RHEES, University of Rochester.

Reception tendered to the members of the Association by Gov-
ernor and Mrs. Edwin Warfield at the Executive Mansion.

**Fourth Session, Saturday, December 2nd, at 10.00 a.m. in
McDowell Hall**

**Topic: Do the College Entrance Requirements in Mathe-
matics Demand a Disproportionate Amount of Time in the
Secondary School Curriculum?**

Dr. JOHN L. TILDSLEY, New York High School of Com-
merce, New York City.

Professor DAVID EUGENE SMITH, Teachers' College, Co-
lumbia University.

Mr. WILSON FARRAND, Headmaster of the Newark Acad-
emy, Newark, N. J.

General Discussion:

Professor EDWIN S. CRAWLEY, University of Pennsyl-
vania.

Professor CHARLES DEGARMO, Cornell University.

Director A. W. HARRIS, Jacob Tome Institute, Port
Deposit, Md.

Miscellaneous business.

Election of officers.

Adjournment.

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
Eighteenth Annual Convention

—
FIRST SESSION

Friday, December 1st, at 11 A. M.

Dr. Rush Rhees, President of the Association, Presiding.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY PRESIDENT THOMAS FELL, ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.

Mr. President and Members of the Association: When last year we met at Princeton the President of Princeton University referred to the characteristics of education as manifested in the Northern, the Middle and the Southern States of America. To-day you have crossed Mason and Dixon's line and are in touch with what he termed the more exclusive views of the South. It is true that here we pride ourselves upon the heritage of a history of more than two hundred years, but in spite of this we are alive and vigorous, and we fully realize that we shall be much assisted in the development of modern views by the closer contact with the delegates of this Association, afforded by your visit to Annapolis.

It is unnecessary to say how gladly we welcome you here, for it is hoped that the cordiality of our greeting may be manifested by our actions rather than by mere words. But let me rather dwell upon the claims of Annapolis for a due recognition on your part of her historic distinction.

Here, in old Colonial days, there dwelt in stately homes, still beautiful after years of use and constant occupation, the Crown Officials. Here met in the old building which you will find on the State House Circle the Burgesses and the Council. Here lived the representatives of the Monarch and the Royal Governor. Here the Maryland and Virginia planters came with their wives and daughters to attend the races, the theatre, assemblies and balls. Here were several clubs, of every grade and name. Here French hairdressers, perfumers, dancing masters and costumers ministered to the pleasure-loving citizens. Here, in houses with terraced lawns and gardens stretching to the river, were housed the number of handsome and fashionable women whose charms are recorded by an English official in the palmy days of Annapolis, just before the Revolution.

Then, whenever you gaze upon the flag of your country, and feel your blood stirred by the strains of the Star-Spangled Banner, remember that the author of the ode, Francis Scott Key, was once a citizen of Annapolis and an alumnus of St. John's.

It was at Annapolis, in yonder old State House, that Washington resigned into the hands of his fellow-citizens the great trust committed to his charge. In the Senate Chamber at Annapolis was ratified the peace between the United States and Great Britain, which brought the Revolutionary War to an honorable conclusion.

Then, in this old hall, where you are assembled, the patriot, Lafayette, was received and welcomed by a memorable banquet in his honor.

Under the old poplar tree on the college campus was signed the first treaty with the Indians by the English settlers.

Then, as we turn to the Naval Academy, so pregnant with historic reminiscences, we are reminded of the hero, John Paul Jones; of Decatur, who swept the Moorish pirates from their anchored prize; of Farragut, lashed to the rigging of his ship; of Sampson and Schley, of more modern fame, and of many other naval warriors.

I have been asked, in addition to this, my somewhat formal opening, to tell you somewhat of the history of this college.

It was first established in 1696, and was then known as King

William's School. King William's School was located upon what is termed School Street, up beyond the Governor's mansion; and here for nearly a hundred years it flourished under that title, "King William's School." Then arose the Revolution, and in 1784 the patriots of that time were not willing to brook anything that savored of royalty, so a bill was passed enlarging the scope of the school and altering the name of King William to that of St. John. Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, was particularly interested in the formation of the college and of the charter which was obtained at that time. It is said that the name St. John's was given to this institution from the fact that Charles Carroll had been educated as a student at St. John's College, in Cambridge, and he wished thereby to keep alive the reminiscences that he had of his early youth in England.

I may say that England had a great deal to do with the establishment of King William's School. The first Chancellor of King William's School was the Archbishop of Canterbury; and it was established to a very great extent by the efforts of the Reverend Thomas Bray, D.D., who was closely associated with the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and it was under his influence that steps were taken for the formation of that school, which was in fact the first free public school in the United States.

That, as I say, expanded in 1784 and became known as St. John's College. This building in which you are now seated had been erected before that time as the Governor's mansion; but (I suppose by reason of the troubles incident to the Revolution) it had never been occupied by the Governor; so, when the Governor in succeeding years came into power, he decided not to occupy this building, but to transfer it to St. John's College and to build a new residence on the ground which is now the property of the Naval Academy. This house (the new Executive Mansion) was used for a long time by the authorities of the Naval Academy as their administrative building; but now it has been pulled down to make room for the newer buildings that have recently gone up.

This room in which we now are was, as I imagine, the banqueting room or the reception room. Here were entertained Lafayette, George Washington and other notable men.

This gallery is an old gallery that was placed around it, and the various rooms were living rooms into which was easy access by means of the various doors you see around the hall. When the college was established in 1784 this was the only building that existed on the campus. The members of the faculty occupied rooms on this side, and the class-rooms, as well as the students' quarters, were on the other side. So we went along under many vicissitudes until we came down to about 1832. Under the original charter of St. John's College the State pledged itself to support the college; pledged itself to give State appropriation for the maintenance of the college and to assign certain taxes levied upon the tobacco to insure the payment of this amount; but the State did not adhere to its contract, and a large amount of money was due to the college by 1832. This the college endeavored to obtain from the State, and in 1832 a compromise was effected and the State then agreed to pay a sum of money annually to the college as equity of interest on the amount that was owing; the State still continues to pay us that amount; and to that extent we are closely connected with the State.

In that year the building to the right (Humphrey's Hall) was erected; and so we pass on to the period of the Civil War, just before which time Pinkney Hall was built. When the Civil War broke out the students and the faculty were driven out at the point of the bayonet by the United States army and the buildings were then used as a hospital for the wounded soldiers; for seven years it was so occupied, and the progress of the college came to a standstill. In 1867 it was reorganized and classes established, and in 1871 the first class after the war was graduated.

That class celebrated the occasion by putting up a shield. It looks now like a little coffin lid. Of course, it had more hangings; but in time the hangings were moth-eaten and were removed. After that introduction to the idea of putting up class shields, each succeeding class has put up its class shield and its motto, which accounts for the class shields which you see around the walls; and then from that time I am glad to say that we have advanced in harmony with the progress of the times: our buildings have increased in size; the number of students in attendance has also steadily increased; and, as

I said at first, we hope to obtain a great deal of benefit from this visit of yourselves, who are delegates from the more Northern and Eastern institutions.

I received a short time ago a message over the telephone from the Superintendent of the Naval Academy, who desired to say that he was sorry he was unable to be here in person to extend his greetings to you on this occasion. He added that if any of you feel disposed to go into the Naval Academy and look around, he would be extremely pleased to see you, and suggested this afternoon, about half-past three, as a suitable hour; that there would be at that time a great number of interesting drills—not military drills. He thought that the drill in the Engineering Building, where they have their technical instruction, would be of interest to some of you; also the drill in seamanship and the torpedo drill. The battalion of cadets will be divided up into several sections and some will be at work in one place, some in another, and he said he would be only too glad if you would enter the buildings and see the midshipmen at work.

The Governor also desired me to say that he hoped this visit will be a pleasant and agreeable one. The meeting tonight will be held in the House of Delegates, on the hill, and after that he expects to receive you at his house, which is exactly opposite the State House.

As there are other items on the program, I think I have done my part toward filling up the time. I shall, therefore, give way and allow the other speakers to come and take their part; so I will conclude by ending, as I began, with the hope that you will enjoy your visit to Annapolis, and that you will take away a pleasant recollection of this old Southern town.

RESPONSE.

PRESIDENT RUSH RHEES.

President Fell, I desire, on behalf of the Association, to disavow any missionary purpose in coming to Annapolis. We have come here to be instructed, to have our own hearts warmed and our modesty enlarged. One of the most delightful features in our experience in going from year to year to different institutions is the opportunity which we gain to know our neighbors more perfectly, to see them at their work and to find out the circumstances and conditions of it, and to go back to our own tasks with a broader view and a larger sympathy and sincerer regard for those who with us are endeavoring to do the work of education in our country.

Therefore, thanking you most cordially for your words of hearty welcome, I will ask that we pass immediately to the business of the morning and listen to the address of Dr. Herrick on "The Proper Place in American Education for Instruction in Commercial and Industrial Subjects.

THE PROPER PLACE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION
FOR INSTRUCTION IN COMMERCIAL AND
INDUSTRIAL SUBJECTS.

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Broadly considered, practical education is that designed for agriculture, the industries and commercial life. These three great interests make a double demand upon our educational system: for special schools of agriculture, technology or mechanics arts and commerce; and, secondly, for a larger recognition of the agricultural, industrial and commercial elements in our general schemes of education. The recent multiplication of material on every phase of applied education has led to confusion on the part of those working in the different fields, and a general haziness as to the purposes of education in the directions above indicated. Thus it is that staunch upholders of manual training for high schools strongly oppose introducing any manual training into grammar schools; some identified with higher schools of commerce are against secondary schools of commerce; some believing in manual training question the worth of commercial education, and vice versa; and frequently schools in which manual training is taught are termed trade schools, and those teaching commercial subjects are considered business colleges. It is too much to hope that any definition of terms or limiting of fields at this time will be final, but may we not from such a discussion as this help to clear applied education of some of its confusion and vagueness?

An added element of confusion is the presence of the private school, supported by tuition fees and conducted primarily for profit. In the private schools both instruction and the working tools of instruction, as books, supplies, etc., are paid for by those who attend. Students of the private schools naturally wish an adaptation of their instruction to some direct and immediate end, and the aim of these schools is necessarily different from that of public or community schools.

Public high schools, with private academies and institutes and institutions of college and university rank, supported either entirely or largely by appropriations or bequests, are all to be classed as community institutions. Public support and private philanthropy imposed a community obligation, and education in schools of this class should be planned with that broad view which considers community needs and community consequences. The aims of the institutions last named should be not the immediate and direct benefit to the individual, but the more remote and indirect advantage to society. Thus it is the duty of the State or social order to make present sacrifices for the knowledge, character and efficiency of men of the future.¹

Confusion exists as to the effect of introducing applied education as an element in general education. Many of the so-called special schools are largely given over to general work, nor does the special element prevent the general work from being done as well in these schools as it is done in other schools of corresponding grade. A detailed discussion under manual training and book work led to the conclusion that, "pupils taking manual training as part of their school work, in regular school hours, accomplish as much academic work as, or more than, those pupils who devote the same number of hours to school work without manual training."² Commercial high schools have been long established to show that their teaching of English, the modern languages, history and mathematics need not be inferior to the teaching of these subjects in other grades of schools. It was the writer's good fortune recently to see something of the excellent grammar schools of Springfield, Mass., and he became convinced that the practical instruction in manual training and home economics given in the seventh and eighth years of those schools strengthened rather than weakened the other work. Applied education in the elementary schools has never been more completely misunderstood or savagely attacked than in New York City. Under the cry "fads and frills," and "neglect of the three R's," the administration of the schools is still being bitterly

1. John Stuart Mill, *Political Economy*, Book V, Ch. XI, Sec. 8.

2. Belfield *Report of Commissioner of Labor for 1892*, p. 607.

assailed. But an impartial study of the facts will lead to the conclusion that the three R's were never better taught in New York than they have been in the last five years, and in addition the new elements improperly termed fads and frills are giving a new interest in the schools on the part of those who attend and a better equipment to them when they go out from the schools.¹ The fact is that narrowing the scope of educational effort does not necessarily mean an increase of efficiency, even in the subjects to which the effort is limited. It may be necessary to caution against an inference that because I am here upholding a practical education I am perforce antagonistic to all other forms of training. Special education should be provided for those of particular interests and destined to particular careers. To compel every student to take an elaborate practical course would be an injustice, as it would be an injustice to require every one to take a course in Hebrew and Sanskrit, Greek and Latin, higher mathematics, the modern languages or engineering. There is no one educational panacea for our social ills. Different periods and different classes in the same period make varying demands which the schools should recognize and seek to satisfy. The claims for this broader applied education are two: that it should find a place as a form of special training for large and important classes of modern society, and, second, it should make a larger contribution to our system of general education.

To better determine the significance of special schools, we may regard for a moment the threefold aspect of our education. There is one group of subjects that deal primarily with man, such as languages and literature, history, æsthetics and art. Subjects of this sort we call humanities. Another group of subjects is concerned primarily with nature—the external world in which man lives. Studies from this group are broadly termed sciences. And there is a third unity in our education, just as definite as either of the preceding, which may be denominated the man-and-nature-in-interaction group of studies. Our engineering schools of technology, schools of agriculture, courses in home economics, etc., are the outcome of a regard for this phase of education.²

1. See Statement of Principals' Club of New York City, *Educational Review*, June, 1905.
2. De Garmo, "Correlation of Studies," *Educational Review*, May 1893.

If we consider the periods of influence of the schools just named, we shall find that classical and formal training schools, the schools that considered primarily and narrowly man and the development of his mind, occupied relatively the most important place until the third quarter of the nineteenth century. From about 1850 on there was an increasing interest in schools of pure science, which attempted to interpret and bring to man's knowledge the facts of the physical universe in which he lives, but toward the close of the nineteenth century there began a marked interest in the problem of applying knowledge of the external world to the needs of man, and so we get our various divisions of applied education. It will be necessary, also, to keep in mind that hitherto the applied schools have given themselves chiefly to what may be termed the production of wealth—the extraction and transforming of the riches of the earth. Schools of engineering and agriculture are of this sort; but more recently commercial schools seek to supplement the other forms of applied education by giving an equipment for the transfer and exchange of the wealth produced.

With the notion that practical education is a sop to a class in the community we should have no patience. Some in England have been bold enough to put their proposition: Industrial education for the peasant class. When a great industrial institute was established a few years since in an American city it was remarked that this school was endowed so that poor people might be taught to serve rich people. If this were the purpose the school deserved to fail. We do not want practical education as a charity; we do not want it as patronage from the snobbish rich. Education as a badge of class distinction has no place in the United States. We cannot afford to have one education for culture and another for commerce, industry and agriculture. For long in France practical education has been sneered at as *bourgeois*, and in consequence culture has grown shallow and without the stability of character, while trade and industry have languished. In Germany practical studies are denominated *Brodwissenschaften*, and there is the early consignment of a life to what is regarded as a higher or lower walk. This sharp division into classes has given a stolidity to German character; such a division also fails to make the most of the individual. When the sciences

were introduced at Oxford they were called in derision "stinks," and, though there has been much progress of practical education in England, her most far-seeing statesmen and her wisest scholars still regard class distinctions based on education as the greatest weakness of the British nation. We cannot, then, afford to have education for practical affairs as anything short of the highest education.

The task of fixing the proper place of applied education may be simplified by saying that it should go in modified forms into schools of all grades and everywhere. The Declaration of Principles of the National Educational Association in 1905 is of interest: "The association heartily approves of the efforts now being made to determine the proper place of industrial education in the public schools. We believe that the time is rapidly approaching when industrial education should be introduced into all schools and should be made to harmonize with the occupations of the community. These courses when introduced should include instruction in agriculture as well as manual training, etc." It should be said in this connection, and bearing on the above recommendation, that new subjects are not imperative to the introduction of a new education. New elements may be introduced through old subjects, and old subjects given new direction.

First in need at the present time is applied education for rural communities. In addition to agricultural colleges there should be special forms of high schools bringing the science and the art of farming and farm home-making nearer to the people. But this is not all, the common schools in country districts should by instruction stimulate an interest in and dignify the calling to which their pupils will go. Our schools of agriculture have not had the largest success because of neglect of agricultural education in the lower schools. A recent important report on Industrial Education for Rural Communities, presented to the National Educational Association, reaches the conclusion: "This committee does not hesitate to say that in its judgment the rural schools, which train nearly one-half the school population of this country, so far as school training goes, should definitely recognize the fact that the major part of those being trained will live upon a farm; and that there should be specific, definite, technical

training fitting them for the activities of farm life. Such schools will not make farmers nor housekeepers, but they will interest boys and girls in farming and housekeeping and the problems connected with these two important vocations." It has been said, not without reason, that the neglect of applied education for country people is a cause of the too evident dissatisfaction of these people with their lot. By way of suggestion it may be said that the elements of agriculture can be introduced into rural schools in connection with a study of geography and as a substitute for the various forms of science or nature study already being followed.

Sydney Smith was so annoyed by domestic difficulties that he once wished for a human society modelled after a hive of bees, where all workers were neuters and were born to their station. This was a desperate and futile wish, but it would no doubt be at present echoed by many employers of domestic labor. Present difficulties of labor for the home are, I believe, quite as much the fault of the mistress as of the maid, and in urban and rural communities alike the girls should be given an education to fit them for work as home-makers. Applied education in the direction of home economics has scarcely begun, yet it has gone far enough to show us that here is a field of great practical utility. Sewing, cooking, care of a house, sanitary science, dietetics, home economics, these and other fields are available, and in this way valuable studies in æsthetics, chemistry and applied economics may be given to the girls of America as a part of their education. Education of the sort here described should be finished in the seventh and eighth years of the elementary school and during the high school period. In addition to this more general work which may be given in all schools, there is a place for special industrial education for girls in technical high schools and evening schools. The last named institutions should certainly be furnished in the larger centers of population.

Industrial education for boys may well be supplied as supplementary training in the seventh and eighth years of the elementary schools and during the high school period, and also in more technical day and evening schools of mechanics arts, and in advanced institutions of technology and engineering. For the last two years of the elementary school and in

the high school period manual training for boys should find a place as a method in education rather than a means of acquiring skill. In the period from twelve to eighteen years boys have a restlessness and desire for activity which can be given direction and turned to good account in shop work. City boys particularly need this form of education. They have little opportunity to do work with their hands, and may be given an all-a-roundness of development by the handling of tools and making of useful articles.

Of advanced industrial education in schools of technology and engineering little need be said. The educational and practical worth of these institutions has been established by above twenty-five years of experience, so that their place is definite; they are recognized as an integral and necessary part of our higher education.

To other forms of industrial education should be noted: one is a trade school or school of mechanics arts to serve as a preparation for those who are to become artisans, and the other a technical continuation school for those already employed in the arts. In my opinion, the trade school might well be supplied for those of secondary school age, and, while such a school need not neglect the elements of a general education, these should probably be reduced to a minimum, and the chief emphasis placed on the giving of technical skill. Schools of trades are almost unknown in American education though they have long existed in Europe, particularly in Germany. The need for trade schools is obvious when we consider that by narrow specialization in industry men are no longer given an opportunity to become expert in the trades, and in addition the trades unions often discourage apprenticeships. From present tendencies we must establish trade schools or choose between two undesirable alternatives, either be without skilled workmen or import them from abroad. Endowed institutions or public education or both should furnish at our great industrial centers an opportunity to learn thoroughly the chief trades practiced at those centers.

The need for the technical continuation schools is already felt, and evening schools of trades, educational centers for working people, and other forms of night schools are quite generally conducted. As a juror at the St. Louis Exposition

I had to pass on the exhibits of several of these special schools for adult education. In some cases there was the evidence of an attempt to train and assimilate a recently arrived immigrant class; other schools are for the increased efficiency of American artisans, and others have the technical work reduced to a minimum and are giving much in the direction of general education. The need of these schools is very great; much the larger proportion of our population does not go beyond the elementary school, and if the education of the elementary school is to be retained and turned to good account then there must be provision for rearing an educational superstructure on the foundation which the elementary school has laid. Grave dangers are presented to our body politic if we cannot make an appeal to those who go out from school at or before fourteen years of age. This appeal can be in part for increased economic efficiency, and in part for the continuance of the general education which has been earlier begun. The continuation school of the sort here described makes possible the double use of school buildings and equipment, and it can turn the school into a social center for the community in which it is placed.

What has already been said bears with like force upon commercial education. We need higher schools of commerce, and I believe that they should be more liberally conceived than are some that are already existing in this country. We need many secondary schools of commerce in which the general educational element shall predominate over the technical, and we also need in our great commercial centers more highly specialized business schools for those of secondary school age. In addition to the foregoing there should be commercial continuation schools for those already employed in business, and these evening schools should furnish an opportunity for advanced education and higher efficiency.

It remains to attempt the statement of a principle which should guide in our dealing with applied education. It seems easy of statement. Every worker in every calling should have two educations: the first general, the second special. The first education should make one a man, infinitely greater than his calling; the second education is that which gives the technical equipment by which the man may honorably and

successfully follow his calling. Applied studies wisely introduced do not preclude a general education. They can be made to supplement and intensify a general education and help to turn it to the best account.

The question of Supreme significance in this discussion is what will be the result of a practical education upon the future? Does the encouragement of training for agriculture, industry and commerce mean, in the words of Rudyard Kipling, that

“Little folks of little souls
Rise up to buy and sell?”

If a utilitarian education is at the loss of manhood, the sooner we discourage it the better; but if, as I believe, these branches of applied education mean a larger and better manhood, then we should give it the fullest encouragement. Education is not an affair of the church alone, it is more than moral; it is not for narrow political purposes alone, it is more than political. Education should be moral, it should be political, but, quite as important, it should be economic, industrial, commercial. The following, according to President Hadley, is the threefold way that our education should improve: to make men better and sounder morally and spiritually, to make them better members of the body politic, and to make better workers.¹ The merest statement of this ideal is sufficient to gain assent for it. Education of the heart, the head, the hand, and the bringing of these into balance in the life, this it is that will give a nobler manhood. Let no one cavil at practical education as being of the earthy earthy. The object of the education here discussed is “not to make money, but to make men.” This practical education is dedicated to the propositions that manhood, courage, discipline, can be learned from honest toil, and that it is better for a young man to go into a school which prepares him for work on a farm, in an office or shop, and thus learn to be a useful member of society, than it is for him to dawdle aimlessly and learn to be a loafer.

Deep-seated and far-reaching conflicts are now going on in

^{1.} *Independent*, December 15, 1900

society. Appalling evidences of class spirit are apparent. Earlier political lines are disappearing, and the new divisions are being made based on wealth and social differences. Fraud, commonly termed graft, has run riot. Textile strikes in New England, coal and iron strikes in Pennsylvania, labor wars in Colorado, these and many other outbreaks are but the minor notes of a swelling tide of unrest and dissatisfaction. Let us not be pessimistic, let us be firm in the belief that in the future American democracy will find solutions for the vexatious problems of the distribution of wealth, and settle the contests between labor and capital. But let us not blind our eyes to plain truth. Social welfare will be secured only by the adjustment of these conflicting elements.

No one can read the following statement of Bishop Spaulding and not think twice: “* * * our present economic and commercial systems are subversive of civilization. They sacrifice men to money; wisdom and virtue to cheap production and the amassing of capital. They foster greed in the stronger and hate in the weaker. They drive the nations to competitive struggles which are as cruel as war, and in the final result more disastrous, for their tendency is to make the rich vulgar and heartless and the poor reckless and vicious.”¹

It is the condition here described which was presented by Matthew Arnold in another way, as

“This strange disease of modern life,
With its sick hurry, its divided aims,
Its heads o'erstocked, and its palsied hearts.”

It is education broadly conceived and liberally provided to which we must look for the regeneration of modern society. Public welfare is still bound up with the work of the schools. Schools which satisfactorily discharged their functions a generation ago are not adequate to satisfy present demands. If our economic communities are to be rendered safe, if modern life is to have a higher form of industrialism and commercialism, if society is to see less of selfishness and more of service, then a practical education which is at the same time liberal must find its place as an important part of our systems of instruction.

^{1.} Spaulding, *Socialism and Labor*, p. 173.

THE PROPER PLACE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION FOR INSTRUCTION IN COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL SUBJECTS.

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Under this seemingly innocent subject of discussion there lies an issue which is dividing the educational world into two irreconcilable parties. The difference of opinion between these two parties as to the object, aims and scope of university education has been so radical as even to prevent them from finding any common ground for a discussion of the main questions at issue. The object of this paper is to present in brief compass the essential differences in the two points of view and to show how recent changes have affected the problem.

The first view presents commercial training as a simple appendage or supplement to the usual college course. Such training is to be likened to physical education in the college gymnasium or to manual training in the public high school. No college aims to equip men for athletics as a professional career after graduation, yet it is recognized that the physical side is worthy of attention, therefore the regular course is supplemented by gymnastic drill.

No school of manual training professes to prepare boys directly for a mechanical trade; in fact, the highest ideals of manual training which are now espoused by prominent educators throughout the country lay emphasis upon the general and psychological effects of using the hands in the control of simple tools and instruments, in order to develop habits of precision, self-reliance, patience and carefulness. Manual training is now advocated for all students in the public schools, irrespective of their future vocations.

As manual and physical training supplement and round out the regular scheme of educational courses, so, it is said, a few economic subjects, under suitable restrictions, should be recognized as in a certain sense necessary to the curriculum. And as excessive devotion to athletics is known to be harmful, while

too much time spent in manual training would also retard the development of the higher faculties, so in commercial instruction great care should be exercised to prevent that excessive specialization which would tend to make of university work a mere technical course.

Another variation of the first standpoint is seen in the prevailing opinion that commercial training is a cheap substitute for genuine college education. This criticism has been caused by the many well-known abuses practiced in commercial academies and so-called business colleges. The evils of adulteration and cheap imitation which are so common in the commercial world are shown, from this standpoint, to have pervaded even the educational sphere and to have led to a general lowering of the standard of excellence. Instead of the high ideals inspired by a study of the classics, the student has presented to him the narrow, technical problems of present-day industry and commerce, with the inevitable result that at the end of his course he is thrust out into the world an educational monstrosity, with neither a thorough economic equipment nor a broad, human culture. Such is the first view of commercial and industrial instruction. Doubtless it is founded on fact in too many instances.

In sharp contrast to this conception, I should like to present a second and totally different point of view, from which commercial training is regarded not as a supplement or appendage, not as a makeshift of lower standard adapted to the needs of an inferior clientele—but as an independent, co-ordinate system. By "independent and co-ordinate" I mean a system which has its own separate justification and *raison d'être*, and one which takes rank with other college courses as a complete and well-rounded educational plan.

This independent position is based upon the following grounds: First, the demand for a more *democratic* system of college education. Since the Civil War countless hundreds of thousands of young men have ceased to regard the high school as the highest round of the educational ladder to which they may aspire, and have passed on to the college or the university. Some degree of college training has now become a matter of course for any one whose ambition rises above a clerkship in business. Although the old college course was

not intended to fit men for commercial pursuits, the number of college men now entering such pursuits is steadily and rapidly growing, and exceeds the number of those entering any other profession or vocation. University study has changed from the status of a luxury for the select few, who wish to wander among the exclusive labyrinths of "polite learning," to that of a necessity—which is accessible even to the great masses of the people. But in order to respond to this new demand and to grasp the wonderful new opportunities which are opening before it, the university must offer a much broader and more catholic scheme of education than ever before. The demand of the new clientele is not for an inferior kind of preparation, but for one adapted to new conditions.

Second, the need of a more *efficient* system of training. The old classical curriculum is always in demand, and we may expect a steady and natural growth in the number of students in this department of work in many sections of the country. But the vast army of young men who are now aspiring to higher education look on the university as a center of both culture and efficiency. To them a college course means broader views, more exalted ideals and a finer sympathy with the great social movements of the time; but it also means a higher economic efficiency and the development of the power to secure a recognized economic standing in the community.

There was at one time a universal complaint among business men regarding college education, that it not only failed to fit men for commercial pursuits, but that it positively unfitted them in most cases. The latter charge was, and to some extent still is, a most serious one, and has been due primarily to the low standard of work required under the old regime. Let me quote in this connection Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip, First Vice-President of the National City Bank of New York City, a man of the broadest and most progressive views, and one whose belief in university education is profound and enthusiastic. Says Mr. Vanderlip:

"I believe it is too nearly the truth that a college degree in America to-day does not mean a great deal more than four years of residence at a college. It certainly does not mean that there have been four honest full years of hard and conscientious work as an absolute requisite for that degree. There

is undoubtedly opportunity for a man to put in the fullest measure of industry, but there are few institutions where that full measure is absolutely required before they will give the stamp of their approval in the form of a degree. The schools that are most tenacious of classical tradition should hardly feel proud of the fact that practically the only institutions of learning in the country that absolutely demand a full and honest return of work done in exchange for the honor of their degrees are the technical schools. If as sharp a demand for time well spent were made in all colleges, a long step would be taken toward gaining sufficient room in the curriculum for the studies that will be necessary to make up an ideal commercial course."

Third, we should consider that the two demands above mentioned have arisen from a great and fundamental change in our social and economic structure. This is the day of the exaltation of science. One of the important results of the rise of large industrial and commercial establishments has been the placing of production on a thoroughly scientific basis. Business men tell us authoritatively that there is now a greater necessity than ever before for the application of scientific principles and for the employment of the highest degree of skill, not only in technical processes of industry, but in the marshalling of economic forces, the development of new markets, the management of labor, the economical and honest financing of undertakings and the working out of numberless problems of a distinctly commercial character. The scientific knowledge required for this work must be secured in one of two ways, either through a long and costly experience needlessly repeated by each individual, or through a careful, preliminary study of fundamental principles. The first method is becoming increasingly difficult, if not impossible. Every young man entering business, no matter how thorough his education, should serve some apprenticeship in the lower rounds of employment, but the time has almost passed when one might begin at the bottom without preliminary education and work himself up to the higher stages of employment. The effect of this change has been to strengthen and intensify the need of a thorough preliminary training specifically adapted to business life.

Fourth, the gradual evolution of distinct business sciences.

The decision as to the best form of the preliminary education just mentioned rests largely upon the possibility of reducing to scientific principles the immense number of well-established rules and maxims which are observed by successful business men in the fields of banking, manufacturing, merchandising, transportation and commerce. In short, can we formulate and teach business sciences? The answer is that it has been and is now being done.

Let us take a concrete example in the field of manufacturing. Certain problems arise in all industrial enterprises; the best location and layout of a new plant, the method of labor payment, by piece, time, premium, sub-contract, etc.; the relations of the firm to labor unions, to employers' associations; the various methods of cost-keeping; the most efficient means of organizing or reorganizing the sales department; of borrowing money or securing reasonable freight rates—all of these are questions which confront the manufacturer with almost constant regularity. But is the experience so gained worth nothing to others; is a correct decision on all these points the result of a mere whim of chance, and must each succeeding generation begin entirely anew the great constructive process of industrial organization and management, conscious that as it has inherited nothing so it can bequeath nothing toward the perfection of our economic system? Certainly the very statement of these questions affords their answer. The manufacturer or other business man works out and follows definite, well-established principles. The fact that the conditions of the business world vary by no means destroys the existence of such principles nor makes it impossible to study them. The thousand and one chemical reactions of different substances upon iron do not prevent us from examining that metal and formulating accurate, scientific rules concerning it. Nor is it otherwise with the laws of money and credit, the maxims of successful labor management or the fundamental rules which govern the layout of a plant. These rules and principles are not only worthy of the most careful, minute examination and research; they can be collected, classified and arranged in logical, systematic order and taught with accuracy and precision. When so arranged and taught they form business sciences. The existence of such sciences is a momentous fact in determining

the place of commercial instruction in our educational scheme; it offers the basis of an independent system of studies.

Finally, the cultural value of the economic, business and social sciences has an important practical bearing upon our subject. For many years such a value was most strenuously denied, and it was educational "good form" to speak of the narrowing influences of the "dismal science." But better councils have prevailed, and the sound common sense of the educational world has asserted itself. Politics, general economics and courses in practical social problems are now parts of the curriculum at all the leading universities in the land. As culture studies pure and simple, they offer a broad training of the first importance. Certainly the same may be said of many business sciences which have heretofore been ranked as technical. A scientific knowledge of the great labor, financial and industrial movements which are producing such unprecedented concentration of power in our own time, would seem to deserve high rank in our list of university studies. Let me again quote Mr. Vanderlip on this point: "In the popular mind the motives of business men are often maligned. I know leaders in the business world who have as little concern for personal reward in what they seek to accomplish as would be the rule with men engaged in scientific research. These men are devoted to certain commercial ideals. They have the same high type of imagination which usually marks men who attain eminence in any other line of activity. They are, in a large way or in a small way, as may be determined by their environments, using similar qualities to those that make great statesmen, great scholars or great scientists. I believe, therefore, that a proper education for the highest work in commercial life might be so outlined as to be entirely in harmony in its practical application with the ideals of those who conceive that a university should be a place for scientific research, a place where the scientific habit of mind should be sought purely for the love of the truth." The investigation of business questions from this point of view should cultivate not only a technical proficiency and economic advantage, but also a strong sympathetic acquaintance with the great human problems of the age. I feel that the cultural value of such studies must appeal to all who believe that the proper study of mankind is man.

THE PROPER PLACE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION
FOR INSTRUCTION IN COMMERCIAL AND
INDUSTRIAL SUBJECTS.

MR. JOHN H. CONVERSE, OF PHILADELPHIA.

This subject, as formulated, assumes the need and value of training for business and industrial pursuits. No argument is necessary to establish this fact. It is just as true that suitable training is required for a business career as that suitable training is required for the professions, so called. It is equally true that, until a comparatively recent period, no direct provision has been made in our educational systems for a preparation for business.

Two theories of education are held: one that the proper method is the development of the faculties of the student without reference to ulterior pursuits, and the other that the course of study should be *informing* and directed to the proper mental equipment. We cannot deny the value of general culture. It is true that the properly trained mind can adapt itself to requirements of every description; but this view assumes what may not be admitted—that both culture and training cannot be effected in a properly selected curriculum. Who shall say that the study of the natural sciences is not as valuable for purposes of culture as the study of metaphysics, or that the study of mathematics in their application to mechanical principles is not more effective for culture than their study in the abstract? Can it be maintained that the study of modern history and commercial geography are less effective in promoting the training of the faculties than the study of ancient history and archæology? It is the discipline of difficulty which counts; and if the subjects on which the faculties are exercised are such as may prove valuable and informing for future use, there is no ground for their condemnation. If, then, these two theories of education can be harmonized, the solution of the problem is at hand.

Our subject requires the consideration of the relative position in any curriculum, of special training and, incidentally, of the time which should be allotted to such studies. In order to a proper consideration of this point it is necessary at the outset to define what we mean by "business." The term has a much broader significance now than it had 250 or 200 years ago, when the first American colleges were founded. Then it meant almost exclusively the retail sale of commodities. The transactions involved were of the simplest character. Barter, the exchange of one article for another, constituted the main function. Finance as a science was not involved. There was confessedly little room for eminent intellectual qualifications. There were no manufactures worthy of the name in this country prior to the Revolution. The English policy was to maintain its manufactures at home and to use its colonies as consumers, receiving in exchange the products of the soil and the ocean.

There were no inland transportation problems of importance. The pack horse or the Conestoga wagon was the sum of this interest. There was little or no commercial finance. Banks were few and inadequate for private enterprise. Legislatures were slow to grant charters. Banks were regarded rather as monopolies than as aids to business efforts. The Legislature of Pennsylvania demanded a payment of \$135,000 in consideration of the grant of a charter in 1804 to the Philadelphia Bank.

Insurance as a business was unknown, except as to marine risks. Life insurance, based as it is on scientific data, had not been evolved, and fire insurance was only developed toward the close of the eighteenth century. Such were the conditions when the original American colleges were founded. Small wonder that they did not recognize business pursuits, limited and simple as they then were, as fitting careers for their beneficiaries. On the contrary, their avowed object was, at the first, chiefly the training of men for the Christian ministry. The purpose of the founding of Harvard was stated to be "in order that the Church might have able pastors and that learning might not be buried in the graves of the fathers." Yale was founded in 1701 by a number of Connecticut ministers. The object set forth in the charter was "that youth may be

instructed in the arts and sciences, who, through the blessing of Almighty God may be fitted for further employment, both in Church and civil State.

In contrast with the conditions originally prevailing, we may attempt to indicate what is included in the term "business" to-day. Its significance has been greatly enlarged. It covers a vast range of processes and industries. It affords opportunities to utilize nearly every branch of learning included in a university curriculum. A single pursuit may call in play qualifications most diverse. Perhaps the leading pursuits which are covered by the general title "business" are:

- Mercantile transactions, wholesale and retail.
- The importation and exportation of commodities.
- Transportation, by railroad, by vessel, and otherwise.
- Insurance—fire, marine, and life.
- Mines.
- Manufactures.
- Agriculture.
- Finance.

What, then, we may inquire, are the features of some of these avocations, which may afford fitting fields for the abilities of college graduates?

First, as to mercantile transactions. Their scope to-day is much broader than the mere sale of commodities. Stocks of goods are purchased in the markets of the world. Foreign countries must contribute. Familiarity with the products and the processes of other lands is necessary. A knowledge of other languages is essential. Physical geography is an element. Details of manufacturing processes are involved. The buyer, possessing these qualifications, is even more important than the seller. Then over all, or co-ordinating with all, is the executive management, involving ability in organization and conduct, in finance, in importing, in shipping and in transportation. A business like Mr. Wanamaker's, for example, has 5,068 salespeople and 6,243 other than salespeople, such as buyers, managers, clerks, and accountants, who are seldom visible to the ordinary customer.

Closely related to trade is transportation. This, with its movement of merchandise and passengers, has come to be one of the greatest interests of modern times. Independent of

water carriage, the matter of land transportation by railways has become in this century one of the largest industries. The United States has now over 200,000 miles of steam railways and over 30,000 miles of electric lines. It is a fair estimate that these give employment to nearly 1,500,000 of operatives, and they, in turn, represent 7,500,000 men, women and children, or nearly one-tenth of our population.

In the conduct of this vast interest a large variety of ability is demanded. Mechanical knowledge, engineering skill, scientific attainments, familiarity with agricultural and mineralogical conditions, executive force and financial ability of a high order—all are required in the various functions of a successful railroad man. In fact, in the head of any great railroad system a combination of many, if not all of these acquirements, is invaluable. Hence, it will be found in many cases that one who has the advantages of such a liberal education as an engineering or a professional course supplies is naturally most competent for the leadership of these vast enterprises. Mr. Cassatt is a civil engineer by profession; Mr. Baer a lawyer.

Another branch of business which has grown to large proportions in modern times is insurance. This is of comparatively recent origin. The method and plans of university education were formulated more than one hundred years before the beginning of this interest. The first office for fire insurance in the United States was opened in Philadelphia in 1752. To-day there are thousands of companies and agencies.

Another branch of the business, viz., life insurance, is of more recent growth. The Pennsylvania Company for Insurance on Lives and Granting Annuities was incorporated in 1812, and was followed by other corporations having similar objects; but the great business of life insurance, as we know it, may be said to be only a little over fifty years old. In 1843 the Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, and the New England Life Insurance Company began business. To-day the number of companies has greatly increased, and the capital involved is immense. At the close of 1901 the assets of the various United States companies had involved the enormous aggregate of \$1,879,624,564, and there were 7,500,000,000 risks out. The assets of a single leading United

States company, as last reported, approximated \$350,000,000. The business of life insurance, therefore, involves the custody and maintenance of this enormous capital. Investments must be found for this vast accumulation of money. Business ability of a high order and of varied character is required to pass upon the merits of the enterprises of all descriptions in which funds must be put to insure their safe preservation and liberal yield of income. Most of us, perhaps, have derived our ideas of life insurance from the irrepressible solicitor, who makes life a burden to us until we have taken a policy. But this is only an incident and a small part of what is involved in this vast interest in the light of recent developments.

Included in the realm of business is the enormous interest of manufactures. To this we may give supreme position. It is the creation, out of the raw material of nature, of articles for the comfort, convenience and happiness of mankind. If the old saying be true that "he is a benefactor of the race who makes two blades of grass grow where one grew before," much more is it true that he merits the highest place among his fellows who transforms the crude substances of the earth into the finished product which makes for human welfare and which differentiates civilized man from the savage. In the processes involved there is room for ability and knowledge the most varied and extensive. The command of man over nature elevates him to a god-like position.

America has now taken a leading place among the manufacturing nations of the earth. In the variety and quality of products we are unsurpassed. Our textiles find a market in every land. Our agricultural machinery harvests the crops on the plains of Australia and the steppes of Russia. Our typewriters and sewing machines are manipulated by operators of every color and language. Our locomotives cross the deserts of Africa—convey the tourist to the Holy City of Jerusalem, astonish the teeming millions of the Flowery Kingdom, and have transported armies across the Siberian wilderness to the late conflict in the Far East. The value of the exports of manufactured articles from us has risen to over \$450,000,000 annually.

To meet these conditions of modern business life the most complete training is required. There are few, if any, subjects

in the modern college curricula which will not come in play, as no man can tell what his career will be or what conditions he may have to meet. The fullest command of all the subjects may be required. The man of affairs to-day may find use, not only for technical knowledge, but for whatever is given by the broadest culture. Some knowledge of both the ancient and modern languages may be required. Linguistic knowledge of every description, as producing effective ability in composition and style, is a valuable acquisition.

In this connection another accomplishment may be mentioned, which, I fear, is too often neglected in the modern college curriculum. I refer to public speaking. The ability to speak well, freely, logically, and with some degree of grace and eloquence, counts for much, even in mercantile pursuits. It distinguishes a man and secures admiration and respect. I realize the fact that lawyers are more frequently found in public life than business men, and it may be largely attributed to their training as public speakers. This qualification brings them before the public, and there is nothing which so completely compels recognition and esteem. There is no reason why a business man with the gift of oratory should not be, if otherwise fully educated, as competent for public service or political office as the lawyer. In fact, in handling most questions, his qualifications would be superior. In legislation it is often the solution of questions of a business character which counts. A business man, therefore, whose training has qualified him to grapple with such questions, and who can express himself logically and forcibly in maintenance of his views, will occupy a strong position in public life. I think it is a fact that the best lawyers are those who also are the best business men. Add to a knowledge of the methods and problems of business an equally thorough knowledge of the law, as applicable thereto, and you have the highest type of excellence in our present state of society. Is not this a tacit recognition of the value of business training and business methods?

To the question, "What is lacking in the equipment which the ordinary college training yields?" the answer must be given that very little except general culture is produced. Training for any specific pursuit is not included in the usual curriculum. The college does not consider it within its province

to teach bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting or even penmanship and spelling. These are usually left to the business college. The graduate is without any specific qualifications for the beginning of a business career. In almost every business one of three things is required for a beginner. First, bookkeeping, if for the accounting department. Second, stenography and typewriting or penmanship, if for the general or correspondence department; and third, special talent for the sales department. This is the trinity of business requirements of the beginner. The college course does not give any one. The value of these is in gaining a foothold in business, and not in filling any one of them for life. The young man or young woman, beginning as a bookkeeper or stenographer, achieves a connection with business and gains knowledge of the business. Other faculties will come into play, and promotion to more important service will follow. In this way many, conspicuous for executive ability, have begun their careers. It would be well if every college student had these qualifications who contemplates a business career; and, if they are not given in a college course, they must be acquired elsewhere.

One of the secretaries of President Roosevelt's Cabinet began his career as a stenographer. He is now the Postmaster General. Mr. Andrew Carnegie began his career as a telegraph operator and railroad clerk, and the way was open for his attaining to the position of the greatest steel magnate of America. The problem is to find an opening; and no matter how excellent the natural abilities may be, it is difficult for one to get the opportunity to exercise those abilities unless by beginning in a business to do some specific thing, as I have mentioned.

Following this necessarily imperfect formulation of the kind of training required for the man of affairs, consideration may now be given to the question of its place as to time in an educational scheme. Obviously, it should either follow the course in the secondary school or should be made part of a college course. It requires mature faculties to assimilate the subjects involved. To an increasing extent the establishment of special technical schools and the incorporation into the curricula of universities of business courses are arguments for this position. Holding, as I do, a profound respect for much of the methods

which have heretofore been followed in the university courses, I would argue for a combination of a business course with the usual college curriculum. The following general plan, it is believed, will best meet modern conditions:

Let the curriculum for the first two or three years be the same as in the course in arts, and leading to the bachelor's degree; then follow with an elective course of two years or more if necessary, giving a training for the profession or vocation in view.

If the choice is a business career, the two years of elective studies should include such subjects as the mathematics, the natural sciences, political economy, commercial law and commercial geography, the modern languages, and, incidentally, such practical subjects as bookkeeping, stenography, etc. Such a combined course as this would in no wise detract from the dignity of the course of arts, but would supplement that course and give the graduate an equipment qualifying him for a business career.

The original university curriculum was calculated as a training for the ministry; and from the beginning a training for the law, medicine and engineering has required a supplemental course. It would only be logical that a training for a business career should be afforded in the same manner, and should be built on the solid foundation of the broad culture which is afforded by the course in arts. I am loath to abate one iota of the advantages and prestige of the usual college course. Let us concede all the advantages of the broad culture which that course implies, but let us add to it the special training which makes for success in practical affairs and for useful citizenship.

There has been a great change of opinion and custom as to college education for business. The development of the material resources of the country, the institution of various departments of effort and enterprise which were unknown when our colleges were planned, have brought about this change. Not only is the business career more attractive, but it is more necessary. The brief survey of occupations which I gave at the outset, as included in the realm of business, sufficiently indicates this fact. We must remember that when our colleges were first planned our urban population was small.

Business was then largely confined to retail operations. The country stores, where the farmer exchanged his eggs for molasses or calico or codfish, was the prevailing type. To-day nearly one-third of our population is in cities each of over 25,000 inhabitants.

Mercantile business has been expanded, and wholesale operations of vast proportions are the rule. Manufactures, which were unknown in America, now are prevailing interests throughout the country. The United States has become a manufacturing nation. Our exports of manufactured articles in recent years have passed the mark of value of \$1,500,000 per working day. Commerce, finance, insurance, shipping, transportation—all these present inviting fields for young men of ability and training. Recognition of this fact is found in some of the college statistics. In the first half of the nineteenth century the percentage of Yale graduates in business, as distinguished from the four professions of theology, law, medicine and teaching, was 11 4-9. In the second half of the century the percentage had risen to 23 6-9.

The general outcome of the movement may be summed up as follows: The law during the nineteenth century approximately enlisted one-third of each college generation. At the beginning of the century the ministry followed closely in second place. Roughly speaking, the law and the ministry were then chosen by two-thirds of the class. Nowadays the law still holds its own, but the ministry has fallen off greatly in relative importance; its place has been taken by the merchant's vocation, which now attracts about one-third of the graduates.

It would not be safe to conclude from this that the kind of men who formerly became clergymen now go into business, though this may be true to some extent. In any case, it is clear that the leadership which naturally falls to the college graduate in this country was formerly chiefly exerted from the bar and the pulpit; that nowadays, however, the industrial leaders are also largely recruited from among college graduates; that the typical college graduate of to-day is no longer the scholar, but the man of affairs.

Such a scheme as I have outlined presupposes less attention in the college course to the dead languages, to metaphysics

and ancient history, and thus the saving of time for the special studies required for business pursuits. I believe this to be entirely practicable. I believe one-half of the time spent, usually, in the study of Greek and Latin would be ample. I would not abolish the study of the classics, but would curtail such study unless in preparation for an educational career. To a large extent such study could be pursued in the secondary schools preparatory to the college course. With such a rearrangement a four or five years' course, in which the last two years should be devoted to special study bearing on commercial and industrial pursuits, would be a saving of time and more effective in the equipment of the American citizen for the duties and opportunities confronting him to-day.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR JACOB H. HOLLANDER, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.—A fruitful discussion of such a theme as this should, I think, have a more deliberate preparation than it has been possible for me to give in the absence of the papers that were read. As a matter of fact, however, the issue has been so clearly defined that any discussion must take largely the form of assent to one of two, or possibly three, views presented.

I cannot resist a further note of apology for even partial dissent from the views which have last been put before us by one who represents that ideal combination which results in a great captain of industry and a clear and vigorous thinker.

It seems to me that the discussion takes on its proper, certainly its most helpful, form if we define, with more exactness than perhaps the papers did, the precise equipment involved in instruction in commercial and industrial subjects. If we include in it so wide a range as one of the papers intimated—a social, economic and cultural curriculum—there would be no dissent whatever from the proposition that the place of such studies is coincident, really, with the study of the humanities, and that they should have as large a place in American education as American education can give them. I take it, however, that what is meant by the phrase "com-

mmercial and industrial," in the narrower issue in which it confronts us, is the utilitarian aspect, that form of training which will conduce to the more efficient conduct of commerce and industry, omitting that cultural element which even the most abstract of educators have recognized comes from the cultivation of the social and economic fields.

What place, then, shall we give to such studies with a view to making our economic processes more efficient? It is an obvious fact that the business world is at once suffering from a feast and a famine. Every successful merchant or manufacturer will tell you that he is daily overridden with applicants for employment; and yet that at no time in his experience can he secure the men that he requires. If pressed for an explanation he will probably tell you that the men who haunt his offices and who respond in large numbers to his advertisement are those who possess some special quasi-technical qualification: Bookkeepers, typewriters, machinists, engineers, or what not, according to the requirements of his particular business; but that the man whom he has not in sufficient number, and whom he is always looking for, and for whom he is willing to give very adequate compensation (indeed, the compensation is distinctly a minor consideration), is the man of all-round intellectual equipment: the man whose equipment is not technique but a mental process.

It seems to me in this distinction lies the answer to the question which we are considering, namely, that there is a dual requirement—the requirement of technical equipment and the requirement of intellectual all-roundness. I question whether that all-roundness can be secured by the mere addition of technical elements to a college course. It is the distinct endeavor of a college curriculum not, as is sometimes supposed—as I regretted to hear even Mr. Converse suggest—to give training in the dead languages, in ancient history and in metaphysics. I might say that, although I do not mean to pose as a typical product of the American college, somehow I managed to get through an American college without the slightest education in any of these three. The endeavor of the American college is to bring the students (I know, certainly, of some colleges it is) to view his future subject matter in a scientific manner; that is, to think scientifically, or, if the

word offends, to think with common sense.

I can do no better than to make use of Huxley's thought when he said that the progress of knowledge consisted in a correlation of observation, of speculation, and of synthesis. His words are descriptive of the purpose of all American college teaching. It is to make the student use his eyes; to bring the facts which he sees in relation to their causes and their consequences, and to correlate the conclusions which he finds obtaining in one field of knowledge with those which obtain in another. That student is the most successful product of an American college, I should say, who goes forth, not with a special equipment—whether it be in the classics or in the modern languages—but who goes forth prepared to view the world differently from what he would view it had he not that training: to use his eyes, to accept his facts, not as ultimate facts, but as the product of causes and the causes of effects, and to realize finally the organic quality of all the theories and all the conclusions which he has reached.

Now, to sum up, it seems to me that for the vital, essential part of business and industry that equipment which consists of a mode of thought is incomparably greater and more efficient than the technical expertness which, while absolutely indispensable for the details of industry, does not represent the real heart and essence of commercial and industrial success. The contrast is represented very well by the great captain of industry who sits in his office, on the one hand, and by the thousands who perform specific tasks, on the other. We have heard of the vast number of cogs in the machine; but, after all, there is the one guiding intelligence.

Here and there undoubtedly we have such types as have been presented—men who have risen to the highest point through the channel; but in the main I think it will be found that the type which is most sought by the captain of industry is not the man especially expert in one particular field, but the man with that all-round mental capacity which the college in its modern phase and in its traditional limitations endeavors to give.

I cannot, in this juncture, when the whole world stands aghast at the revelations of moral perversity in great institutions, but refer to the possibility which a college training in

its modern phase may have for the betterment, in moral tone, of commercial and industrial life. I do not mean to intimate by the remotest that that tone is lacking in modern business. Certainly, as we look back upon the commercial spirit of a century ago and contrast it with that of our own time, we realize that a revolution has been wrought; but such exposures as are fresh in our minds make clear that the standard which prevails in private life has not yet been realized in commercial and industrial life; and it seems to me not a futile hope that it will be realized: that just as we have departed from the ancient ideal that slavery was essential to human society; just as we are departing from the later theory that poverty is essential to human arrangements, so we shall attain the view that commercial and industrial success are not merely compatible with ethical conduct, but demand the same high code which prevails in personal relation. My last suggestion is that such inestimable enrichment to our larger life is not inconsistent with the successful prosecution of business, and the ethical progress of society will certainly be stimulated by the continued derivation of our business elements, of our commercial reinforcements, from the college rather than from technical commercial training schools. Just as the latest and most successful developments in legal, and certainly, in medical education, have been attained by realizing that that physician is best trained who has supplemented his technical equipment by an all-round cultural equipment, so I would have the business man supplement his specialized training by a cultural equipment; and I believe that for the real, vital business processes, the time will have been admirably well spent.

SECOND SESSION

Friday, December 1st, at 2.30 P. M.

SHOULD COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES REFUSE
TO ALLOW ANY STUDENT TO COMPETE
IN AN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETIC
CONTEST UNTIL HE SHALL
HAVE COMPLETED ONE
YEAR'S WORK?

PROFESSOR VICTOR H. LANE, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

I beg to acknowledge my sincere appreciation of the courtesy of the invitation to meet with you on this occasion.

I. INTRODUCTORY.

In common with educators all over the country, you are dealing with those questions which compel our attention whether we will or no, questions growing out of student athletics. The topic assigned me for discussion in this paper is stated in these words:

"Should Colleges and Universities Refuse to Allow any Student to Compete in an Intercollegiate Athletic Contest Until He Shall Have Completed One Year's Work?"

Coming back to the University of Michigan in 1897 as a professor in its department of law, after nearly twenty-five years of experience with men outside of university walls, I found a college world very different in many of its aspects from that I had left a quarter of a century before. In no respect, probably not even in scholastic requirements, were changes more marked than in college "diversions," if that, under present conditions, is a proper term.

I gradually became accustomed to the gravity with which university professors considered questions of eligibility. I am somewhat doubtful whether I ever sent a man to the penitentiary for life after the same serious and prayerful consideration I now find myself giving to the determination of

whether Doe has lost his amateur standing by running in a foot race for boys under twelve at a Sunday school picnic a dozen years before. But when the President of the United States stops not to catch his breath after his great effort, which ended a gigantic war between two great nations, before he takes up a cause likely to give him quite as much trouble, the elimination of "war" from the gridiron; when university presidents give valuable space in annual reports to college sport; when crowds, incomparably larger almost than those called together in any other way, are common to witness college games; when the income of a single college for a year from its play exceeds a hundred thousand dollars by enough to build any one of us a comfortable home; when the public press are giving little less attention to college sports than to national issues in a presidential campaign; when educators and administration officers in many of our institutions are wondering after all whether the thing can be made to go without a winning team; when the inquiry is not who is president, but who is coach—when these things are true we are in pretty good company, and handling large business, as we sit to consider the topic suggested.

One who has been at all mindful of the evidences of public opinion upon the question, which have been open during the past twelve months, cannot fail to be impressed with the idea that in the public mind at least there are evils in present athletic conditions calling for correction. Needham, speaking to *McClure's* audience, calls the present condition of inter-collegiate athletics in the East "deplorable." Jordan, writing with a distinctly "yellow" tinge for *Collier's*, seems to see nothing to commend in our play through the West. Ralph Paine and Caspar Whitney will never be cheerful again till we acknowledge our athletic sins and pray forgiveness. The optimistic *Nation*, the *Outlook*, the *Independent*, the magazine, weekly and daily press generally, are giving more or less of space to criticisms of college athletics. Correspondence of the writer with presidents of universities and colleges throughout the middle West, from Michigan and Ohio to Colorado, Nebraska and the Dakotas, some thirty or more in all, drew replies from all but the University of Iowa, and none were satisfied with present conditions, with a possible exception in

a single case, and college presidents of this great central field in this respect seem not so unlike those of the West on beyond, or of those of the east, toward whom we are expected to look for nothing but the wise and good; certainly not, if we are to judge from recently published statements of Presidents Jordan and Wheeler, speaking for the Pacific Coast, and of President Eliot for the Atlantic. Reference has already been made to the attitude of the President of the United States, which is not one of unqualified approval.

II. EVILS CALLING FOR REMEDY.

But what are the allegations of the indictment?

President Roosevelt, speaking at Harvard last commencement, criticizes the game of football for its "brutality" as distinguished from its "roughness." He would seem to think, too, that our sports are suffering from the taint of professionalism—are coming to be looked upon rather as business than play, and that they are too "vicarious"—they engage the few rather than the many.

President Eliot, of Harvard, thinks the game inherently unsuited for college students because "violations of rules are in many respects highly profitable toward victory," and "no means have been found for preventing these violations of rules." That this failure is due to the fact that the nature of the game is such as prevents the detection of violations of rules, though the best that could be framed.

President Wheeler, of the University of California, says that the danger of accident in football is too imminent; that it requires training which is too highly specialized and engages too small a proportion of the student body. This information as to President Wheeler's views is gleaned from the daily press.

President Harper, of the University of Chicago, complains that the most serious difficulty "is the pressure put upon promising athletes in secondary schools to choose their college solely for athletic reasons, and the temptation on the part of athletic, and even college authorities, to bring students into college provided they are athletes in violation of entrance requirements." * * * "That the impression is almost

universal that colleges have two standards, one for athletes and one for students." There is besides, he continues, "the disadvantage of notoriety, which is often too great for the good of the recipients, and the professionalizing of college sports through the attendance at games of hundreds and thousands of persons who are not interested particularly in the colleges represented," but who attend as they would upon professional contests.

President Angell, of Michigan, regrets the "excessive interest in athletic games" and "undue devotion in our colleges to baseball and football." He believes in "healthful outdoor exercise for all students, rather than the star acting of a few on a public occasion," and deplores the fact that inducements are offered by students or graduates, in spite of college authorities, for recruits for college teams.

Mr. Q. G. Villiard, writing in the *Nation* for June 1st last, complains that "for at least two decades athletes have been hired, directly or indirectly, have been offered inducements of various kinds and recruited systematically from preparatory schools, as well as from various walks in life." "Undue publicity" and "desire to win at any cost" are, in his mind, serious evils.

Professor Paul Van Dyke, of Princeton University, complains that football has taken on all the earmarks of business, and that "as a sport it has been absolutely wiped out by the common American appetite for success;" that this "desire for success, the lust of winning," has distorted football from its legitimate ends.

From the correspondence with the university and college presidents of the middle West, previously referred to, it is possible to sift out the following objections to the present status of athletics in college life:

The professional rather than the amateur spirit is dominant; the interest in athletics is out of proportion to interest in other college activities; they require too much time and attention of those participating in them; they attract as participants, or afford opportunity for participation to, the few rather than the many; there is an unhealthy desire to win, sometimes with too little regard to the methods used to attain success; the game is too rough, making danger of serious injury real;

young men are induced to come to college before their preparatory work is finished; they are led to come to college through the offering of inducements which are at least opposed to the spirit of true amateur sport; they attract too much attention from the general public, and the financial interest is too important a factor. In addition to the correspondence with college presidents referred to, I wrote letters of inquiry to the superintendents of schools in the larger cities in which the schools would be most likely to be influenced by the condition of athletics in the universities and colleges of the middle West; as in Detroit, Grand Rapids, Cleveland, Toledo, Indianapolis, Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul, Minneapolis, and to superintendents of the more prominent secondary schools in the same territory, including all high schools in cities in Michigan having a population of five thousand or more, about forty in number. These inquiries were designed to discover whether athletic conditions in the universities and colleges in any way affected unfavorably the secondary and high schools. Replies from somewhat less than half these showed no dissatisfaction, while those from the others did indicate that the influence of athletic conditions in the institutions of higher education was unfavorable in its effect upon the secondary and high schools, the principal objections being that their students were induced to leave the preparatory schools before completion of their preparatory work, and the inculcation of the idea that the athlete is entitled to something because he is an athlete, an idea which percolates down through the secondary schools from the colleges and universities.

If we were to formulate the objections to present athletic conditions in our institutions of higher learning deemed most important in the interest of general education, and based upon the information derived from the sources hereinbefore indicated, we would state them somewhat in the following manner:

First.. The professional spirit is too influential.

Second. Young men are induced to leave the preparatory school before their work there is finished.

Third. Football at least is too rough, so rough as to make serious injury to health and life imminent.

Fourth. The thing is too big; interest in it is out of right proportion in its relation to that in other more important

college activities; its financial features are exaggerated.

Fifth. Athletics require too much time and attention from those participating in them.

Sixth. They are too vicarious; the few rather than the many are participants.

Seventh. They interest the public in a way and to a degree which are not in the best interest of education.

Eighth. There is a double standard of scholarship, one for the athlete and one for all others.

The intelligence, high standing, opportunities for knowledge and keen interest of the persons subscribing to this indictment with these charges command attention to them.

I am quite well aware that not all persons, though of equal intelligence and having equal interest and opportunity for knowledge, would subscribe to these charges, certainly not to all of them.

I confess myself to have been persuaded that there is about as much good practical common sense in the article of Dr. White, of the University of Pennsylvania, published in the *Outlook* for November 18th last, as in any utterance on the subject which has come to my attention. Although it is given up primarily to a discussion of the game of football, yet its effect is in the wider field of general athletics. While I am ready to say so much for Dr. White, I am not prepared to take quite so optimistic a view of the fields as he presents to us.

Some of these faults to which our friends have called attention are outside the range of this paper, since, if they do exist, it is apparent at once that the suggested rule could have little or no influence to correct them.

I, therefore, dismiss the charge of roughness in football with saying that I am persuaded that it is diminishing under present methods of administration, and that the application of suggestions made by President Roosevelt and Dr. White will be effective in relieving this sport from the charge of brutality. I would not, however, like to be understood as being in favor of any sport for college students which calls upon one to physically disable his opponent by deliberately charging him to earth with brute force as soon as he shows that he is physically weak, or by tackling him with the deliberate intention of putting him out of the game.

I pass the charge of vicariousness with saying that after all it is not so bad as it may seem. The spirit which radiates from the "varsity" gridiron and diamond spreads out through the departments and classes until something of it possesses every college student until one feels that the gridiron and diamond are about the safest places around the campus.

As to the lack of proper proportion between the interest in athletics and that in the more strictly scholastic aspects of college life, I would only call attention to a suggestion of my neighbor, Mr. Charles H. Cooley, Professor of Sociology, a most careful and conservative observer. He thinks it a serious question whether the better wisdom would remedy this lack of balance by attempting to diminish interest in athletics or by greater effort to stimulate interest in scholastic attainment. Is there not something may be done which shall lead rather than drive in this direction. The great incentives in this direction now are the daily quiz and the examination. These operate as scourges to drive to the task rather than as rewards to incite to diligent effort. It is to be borne in mind, too, that this charge of bad adjustment is one against football primarily. Might not the objection be met, in part at least, by shortening the season, or limiting the number of intercollegiate contests to three or four it may be? And, too, this would answer, in some measure, the objection that the sport requires too much time of participants.

To the objection that the *public* interest is too thoroughly aroused in our college sports, I only remark in passing that, while I do not sympathize too heartily with the idea that our athletics furnish the best college advertising, I think it must be said that the wide public interest in college athletics of the past dozen of years, particularly among our Western people, has brought the question of a college career to many a lad in such a way as to lead him to really consider it. The very prevalence of discussion in the public press, and among the people generally, growing out of college athletics, has seemed in a way to bridge that wide chasm which has generally seemed to the country boy to lie between his simple life and that of the fortunate college student, whom he has hitherto regarded as in some way made of different clay.

As to the criticism that there is a double standard of scholar-

ship, if this is well made, it is not for lack of rules, for we could not have better, at least throughout the West. The criticism, in my judgment, is one against our faculties, and the remedy is in their treating athletes as they treat other students.

The objection that the professional spirit is too dominant calls for a word more. Professionalism, in my mind, involves one or both of two ideas—that of business as against recreation—of vocation as against avocation, and, secondly, that of compensation of some other sort than that which comes from the physical benefit or mental gratification as the result of participation in athletics. When a student comes, if he does, for two or three months of the college year to regard his football, his baseball, his track or his crew work as of primary importance, as the thing first to claim his attention, and to think that when the demands of the class room and the field seem to conflict, his class work must give way, he is, so far as this spirit controls, professional, and his mental attitude needs adjustment before he is permitted to go further in athletics.

We hear something of the sending by alumni, or fraternities, of promising athletes to college, and many uphold the practice, on the theory that to give one an opportunity to secure an education by philanthropy of this sort, when otherwise he could not attain it, is entirely praiseworthy, and equally so though the beneficiary happen to be a promising athlete. It is difficult for me to see how, if it be athletic prowess or skill which induces the benefaction, and the student knows it, and he is certain to know it, to see how such an athlete can escape the imputation of professionalism; of profiting pecuniarily by reason of his athletic skill. It is practically saying to such a student, "If you will go to Michigan or Cornell and give that institution the benefit of your athletic attainments, or possibilities, I will pay you three, four, five or more hundred dollars per year, to be used in meeting your college expenses." And it is almost inevitable that such a student will bring with him the spirit of the professional in some degree. It is to be noted in passing that this is one of the most difficult conditions with which we have to deal, by reason of our having no jurisdiction over the most guilty. And even where the inducement does not go so far as to tender direct pecuniary gain, but presents

the honor and distinction likely to come through the exercise of his athletic skill on college teams, even this suggests the idea that after all his athletics are to be his chief concern, his real business, and his academic work is to be only of secondary importance, thus again suggesting the professional spirit.

I am not now contending that this is the only source of professionalism in our athletics, nor, indeed, that it is the chief source, but only that it is one. I am quite aware that the large business features of our athletics are suggestive of the same idea, and that contact with the professional coach and the professional trainer have something of the same influence. But these last are outside the lines of this paper as not to be affected by the rule proposed, or if affected, only incidentally.

I think it true that the sort of "inducement" I have been talking about has not been looked upon by college authorities as "professionalizing" the student. It follows, therefore, if the student so induced is not to be regarded technically as professional, still, because the "motif" of the transaction is professional, it is desirable to do away with the practice. It seems to us in the middle West that the day when men were directly hired to represent colleges on athletic teams is passed. Of course, if there are still illustrations of a practice which at one time may have prevailed to a limited extent, every effort should be made to eliminate such cases.

So, again, while it is true that all persons prepared to enter college should have the opportunity, regardless of where they may have got their preparation, still it is to be recognized that entrance examinations are not always the surest test of whether a person is qualified to carry college work. And, further, that the presumptions are that the student who leaves the preparatory school at the end of his third year, or without taking his last year of preparatory work, and comes to college the ensuing fall, will, if he goes into intercollegiate athletics, show in his college work the lack of that preparation he has lost.

It seems to me that the persuasion of such a student to enter college for athletic reasons or any other short of real necessity is doing an injury to the student, to the preparatory school from which he comes, and to the college to which he

goes, and any legitimate means which gives some promise of a remedy should be adopted.

III. WHAT HAVE WE REASON TO EXPECT FROM THE YEAR RULE.

Will the proposed rule help in the correction of these evils which doubtless do exist, though not by any means to the extent we are likely to conclude from the amount of talk about them? It is the single black sheep that causes comment, until we wonder whether half the flock is not black.

It may not be uninteresting to some of you who may not be informed to say that we have in the middle West an Inter-collegiate Athletic Conference. This conference grew out of the "Presidents' Conference," so-called, held at Chicago in 1895, at which were represented the Universities of Illinois, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Northwestern, Chicago, Purdue and Michigan. This Presidents' Conference formulated certain rules for the control of athletics, and recommended the creation of athletic boards of control in the several colleges. These boards, where not already in existence, were created, not entirely uniform in all their characteristics, but composed usually of both faculty and student members, with the number of faculty members usually predominating.

Representatives of these boards met in 1896 and organized the Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives of Athletic Committees. Subsequently the Universities of Indiana and Iowa were admitted to the conference, making its membership nine in all. This conference has formulated the rules under which intercollegiate athletics are now controlled all through the middle West, institutions within this territory, though not members of the conference, having almost uniformly adopted the conference rules. This conference has been able to accomplish much for the better regulation of college sports which would have been utterly impossible without it. The problem of intercollegiate athletics would seem to us most difficult indeed, except for the effective agency of this conference to secure unity of action. One of the most important steps taken by the conference, in the judgment of the writer, was the adoption at its meeting of November 25th, 1904, of the following resolution: "No student shall participate in any intercollegiate contest who shall not have been in residence

a semester and have full credit for a semester's work previous to the term or semester in which the sport is held." By reason of a rule of the conference requiring a reconsideration of action which any athletic committee declines to approve, this resolution did not become effective until June, 1905, when it was reaffirmed. It is worthy of note that of the two representatives voting against this resolution one assigned as his reason that the time limit should be a year rather than six months. I think I may venture to say that if the measure were a new one before the conference, the rule would now be framed to require a year's residence rather than six months.

The rule has been in force so short a time as not to enable us to give definite results of its operation. Its friends certainly have no occasion as yet to change their minds as to the wisdom of its adoption, unless upon the question of whether it should not have been a year instead of a semester rule. Under this rule the student can enter regularly at the beginning of the college year and have four years in all sports but football, in which he could get but three.

Football is the most fascinating of college sports for students, and if one can have his preparatory work at the end of the first semester of his last preparatory year and be eligible to intercollegiate football the next season, there is some temptation for him to do this—a much greater temptation than there would be if he were not eligible until the second season after entering. One other thing can be said for such a rule that cannot be said for all others of our rules governing intercollegiate athletics, it is simple and would be very easy of enforcement. It is not to be forgotten that such a rule would not exclude the student from athletics, but only from that most distracting feature of them, the intercollegiate games.

This rule we expect to be effective in greatly reducing, if not practically eliminating, the practice of inducing students to come to college before the completion of their preparatory work, and the practice of paying the expenses of students because of athletic prowess to attend a particular college. We also believe it will, in great measure, do away with "inducement" of students *because* they are athletes by any form of solicitation. In the very nature of the case, a man will be less likely to put his money or his effort into a venture when possible, or even probable, returns are a long way off.

But the rule will accomplish very much more. It will require the new student to demonstrate that he is a bona fide student and not a college tramp; and that he is able to carry college work. The average college student ought for his own good to get into the swing of the real business of college life before he permits himself to be engrossed with the distracting requirements of intercollegiate athletics.

In my own judgment the year's residence rule should have coupled with it a provision that students who have participated in intercollegiate athletics, as undergraduates, three years, shall be ineligible to compete longer. This, that students shall not be tempted to remain after graduation for the sole purpose of participating in intercollegiate games. An evil I doubt not most of us have had contact with. And such a provision would have a tendency, worth considering, I am sure, to modify the bigness of the thing. And the same thing may, in my opinion, be said of the year rule itself. While it may be quite true that other methods should be found for reducing the girth of the monster, still I am persuaded that the year rule will have a tendency in the direction of minimizing, rather than magnifying, the importance of athletics.

A very practical question arises, that of whether such a rule can be made effective without some concerted effort on the part of a sufficient number of institutions having sufficient influence to control the situation. I think it doubtful.

A word more in conclusion. Let us not despair. The athletic atmosphere is not all miasmatic. The present attack is directed against football. There is much that is good in the game, as has many times been pointed out by those most competent to judge. Let us be conservative and not, as one writer has expressed it, "burn the barn to kill the rats." Under the present pressure there is certain to be most careful consideration of the playing rules with a view of eliminating the objectionable elements of the game, and another season is quite likely to see the game considerably modified. It may be that we shall conclude that the professional coach and the big gate receipts must go, but let us move with caution, that what is done may not need to be undone. There is much to be said for present conditions of college life as against that of two decades ago.

SHOULD COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES REFUSE
TO ALLOW ANY STUDENT TO COMPETE
IN AN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETIC
CONTEST UNTIL HE SHALL
HAVE COMPLETED ONE
YEAR'S WORK?

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I heartily agree with the idea that it is right that we should amend the present athletic situation and yet at the same time amend it gradually and with due caution. I am not quite satisfied with the remedy proposed in the rule read by Judge Lane, on two grounds chiefly: by reason of what it robs the first year's student of, and, secondly, because it seems to me to approach the subject from one end, whereas it would seem more natural to approach it directly from the other. To make my meaning clear on the first point. As I read this question we are agreed that gymnastic exercise of some sort is necessary for our young students. We may assume that competition is profitable; we may even add (possibly with some limitations) that intercollegiate competition is desirable. The sum total, then, of the question of this rule and its desirability viewed in itself is whether participation in intercollegiate athletic competition is desirable, profitable or allowable in the case of a first-year student—*i. e.*, freshman in a college or first year man in a university.

To give that a fair reply a man must have a viewpoint of his own of what is the purpose of the college or university with the life of that young man. I take it that we are all agreed that to give the young man a rounded development of moral, mental and physical powers, such as will equip him for rational living, or for the pursuit of specialized or professional studies, is the purpose of a college, and that the university proposes to

give him due opportunities for these particular studies. The question, then, viewed in itself, is what bearing upon this purpose has intercollegiate competition, and especially for the first-year man? I assume it, again, that gymnastic exercise is absolutely necessary to bring out the physical man, and that competition is more or less necessary to stimulate a full interest in physical exercise, and, besides that, to develop courtesy, generosity and self-control in a man in contention with his peers, as well as, doubtless, courage, strength, endurance, strategem even, and, finally, capacity for moderation in victory and graceful submission in defeat. Of course we might add, in regard to intercollegiate competition, that it has an intent to evoke in our young men college spirit, which is to be more or less a miniature of the public spirit and patriotism which we hope for in the man in the years that are to come.

Now, what is our ideal; that is, the ideal on which we propose to judge the matter in itself? It certainly is not to be the ideal of the Roman Empire in her decadence, which was to give a spectacle to an applauding multitude, to quicken the jaded nerves of a sensualized people, and which resulted in filling the arena with condemned criminals, captives taken in war, hired ruffians, battles with beasts: a field of contest into which it was a disgrace for a Roman citizen to step down. I take it that is not our ideal; but that we have in this question of intercollegiate competition in sport more a touch of the Greeks in the days of their prime, who put the youth of the time to competitive sports in order to develop strength and beauty in their own sons; for which reason no slave or freedman, captive or alien, could compete in the Greek sports, but only the legitimate son of a native free-born citizen. We also pay more attention, perhaps, to-day, to the character development that is intended in intercollegiate contests, and being a Christian people I doubt not but that we have some intent, also, that the character which is developed will be a truly Christian character, however strong, brave or strategic we may demand that it should be.

How far the present status of athletics works toward that consummation is by the question, as far as I am trying to consider the propriety of barring the first-year man. Assuming that there is a more or less ideal intent and purpose in inter-

collegiate competition, I ask myself is there anything in the case of the first-year man or the freshman that should justly bar him from participation in that privilege? Or, rather, is he to be made to suffer a wrong in order that we may right another thing? In a word, are we making a rule that is working a wrong to the first-year man? If it be true, this physical development policy as to the rounding out of the full man; if it be true that character is to be developed by the emulation of hot competition; if it be true that we should develop college spirit as the foundation of something like the spirit of fighting for a cause, true that all of that is necessary for a proper balance in developing a rounded man: I ask why does not the first-year man and the freshman need that as badly as anybody else? Why does he not need the rounded development of the full man and of all his powers? I take it that he does; I contend, then, that he suffers some injustice if he is deprived of it. If it is the question of physical development, the development of physique in the student, why, the first-year man needs it more; because he is now beginning severer studies and entering upon a harder, more confining effort that will call for more strength and development than he had need of in his more elementary studies.

If it be a question of proper balance, why should he not be balanced? If it be a question of generous rivalry, of loyalty to college cause and principle, then I say emulation, if it has this educational value anywhere, has it most so in the beginner; and I do contend if we are to have college spirit at all, that if it is not imbibed in the beginning, it will with difficulty be drunk in at a later day. Taking that point of view into consideration, I contend that there is a certain wrong wrought in the rule, and I stand for the principle of giving the first-year man and the new student his full share of that large life that makes up college and university development.

Again, when we put down that there is a difference between the scope of college men, a difference between the intent of the professional life and of a mercantile avocation, let me place what I conceive to be one difference; it is that in the matter of mercantile avocation there is a trade question of barter, of value given for coin received; but in the idea, the old idea coming down from the Middle Ages, of a profession, men who

had what was presumed to be an advantage over their fellows ought to return it in kind somehow or other to humanity. There were things in life that were beyond the value of coin; there were the priceless things in life that we were to stimulate men to look for; and professional men were to learn to do things for generous reasons, without compensation. In the Middle Ages in the old universities when a man received his degree of a doctor of medicine he had to give his oath that he would never refuse to treat one who was in need of service, because of the absence of remuneration. When one was presented before the bar he was pledged under oath that he would forever defend the poor and oppressed against the tyranny of the feudal barons; in fact, wherever he found humanity under oppression. I have gone back, in looking into that matter, as far even as the Pagan times to find that one of the Roman Emperors insisted, before men were presented for the practice of the Roman law, that they should confess their willingness to stand without retainer for those who were suffering injustice.

If these are some of the ideas that we are aiming at, and if we are aiming at them when we are drawing out of a boy the spirit of contending for a principle and a cause that he ought to stand for—a principle and a cause that are honorable—fighting for what is right toward his fellows and humanity at large, and all that not for a price or compensation, subsidy or anything of that sort, why, it seems to me that, if there is healthy development therein, that development should not be lost to the young man in his first year any more than in his second, third or fourth. Of course, one may say he is not barred from athletic contests; he is only barred from intercollegiate competition; but it is intercollegiate competition that leads him on and fosters these higher aspirations. Of course, it might be said that the freshman really cannot keep up with his studies and go in for intercollegiate sport, go on the 'varsity squad. Sometimes a coach might say as much. I fail to see, if the first-year student cannot do so without serious loss to his studies, how the sophomore, junior or senior student is in better place. And if it be true for all, then the coaches have called for too much time, interest and energy from the student body, and the whole matter is out of adjust-

ment. If it be said that the studies for the succeeding years are not so severe and as many for the sophomore, junior or senior classman as they are for the freshman, I have nothing to say: that is a sequential arrangement that I am not familiar with. I had grown up in the superstition that the studies became more manifold and more severe as one grew older and stronger intellectually in his career.

In fine, to sum up the position that I would like to present in the matter, it is that intercollegiate sport—supposing it to have an educational value, whatever that value may be—should be open in the university to every *bona fide* student, understanding by "*bona fide student*" every young man who has come to that institution primarily for his mental development, for his mental development under the intellectual influences that are there foregathered, and who participates in athletic sport only with due subordination to this purpose; and I contend that the evils which we have to amend should be amended bravely and calmly by the individuals who have the responsibilities of amending these things in individual places.

To take up the second ground of objection to the rule, it seems to me that we are avoiding—I only say *seems* because Judge Lane has presented so clearly that here is a question of a practical and efficacious solution of some of our athletic difficulties, rather than of an easier one, still it does seem to me that we are avoiding an obvious duty. The question of young men coming to college with a distorted view of what is the kind of man that their *Alma Mater* intends them to develop (because they are brought here with their minds full of athletics and intending primarily to devote themselves thereto), it seems to me that ought to be—not only *can* be, but *ought* to be—attended to by the entrance certificates and entrance examinations. Somebody is to blame if all that elaborate system of entrance examinations and certificates is really of no value whatsoever. It seems to me that a brave man with some discernment can see that incapacity in the material presented should debar from college without having to make a rule with regard to the young man's athletics. If men say, "Well, the material may be all right, but we are running on callow youths from preparatory schools without due preparation, and we are

bringing them where they cannot keep up their studies and cannot achieve anything like the college man that we wish to bring out in them"—again it seems to me that if they are not ripe for college development, the examination should bar them, the prior scrutiny should sift them. If they are ripe for it, then comes the idea of a wise, constant and firm following up of a student's studies, which is the supposition, I think, in every well regulated college and university; surely there is somebody or other who has that on his soul—at least is getting a salary for it, whether it has reached his conscience or not.

If that is the case and he follows up his students' class-work, what can he do? He has a number of things to do. He can counsel; he can urge; he can warn; he can menace; he can finally put his finger on the sore point by suspending temporarily from all participation, not only in intercollegiate athletics, but in any athletics, if that be the cause of the evil, the young man who has fallen behind in his studies; and it does seem to me that if we do not do that it is because of the lack of courage or of painstaking care; and I fancy that we ought to take the pains and have the courage rather than solve the difficulty by debarring the young man from competition.

I have been amazed in the discussion in the papers at the apparent impotency of great men in high places. I had believed (it was another of my superstitions) that if the president of a great university like Harvard issued his "Fiat!" why, the thing was done; but I have read President Eliot's annual report¹ (it is now twelve years ago), where there was an indictment of the present game of football that is as strong as any indictment in the press to-day, and yet there has been nothing doing in all these years. I do not wish to exaggerate or push things where they do not belong; but I have a notion that instead of cutting off the young man and making him pay the price, college authorities should take up the burden. We remember that our first-year student is a young man and is not supposed to have the sense of his elders. Why, then, do we through neglect or want of care cut off a young man's pleasure in order to amend an excess or an abuse which is

1. The Annual Report of the President and Treasurer of Harvard College for 1892-93, pp. 12 and following.

simply under the permission of those who have had full power to stop it at any moment, and is tolerated, it seems, to-day by a complacency that would fear a revolution if a finger was laid upon the sacred game?

While not wishing to obtrude the personality of one university, I recognize that individual experiences may help for general discussion. At the university which I represent in this convention a state of things in the athletic department—no better nor worse, I presume, than that prevailing in many universities—had reached last year an acute stage of dissatisfaction to the university. It was thought there was a good deal of subsidized athletics; it was thought there was a good deal of neglect of study; it was thought there was a good deal of vulgarity creeping in with the type of men that made the best backs or forwards in a football line. Remembering a little canon of Emerson, that you send your boy to the schoolmaster, but it is the schoolboys that educate him, we recalled that he sat under his professors only four or five hours a day, but he fairly lived with the coaches. He was with them from morning to night, and traveled with them, ate with them and drank with them; and the highest type of ethics and aspiration that was filtered into that young man's mind was likely to be that of the coaches. The hired coach may be a very exalted individual; but it does seem to me that one who has devoted his time and energy to the development of brute strength and strategy in the use of that strength to batter down one's playmates to defeat need not necessarily have the high aspirations which I referred to a moment ago as fostered by the universities of the Middle Ages; namely, that we should work for humanity and one another and for the highest things of life. We, therefore, concluded that it had to be stopped, and of course (it being a human problem) gradually. Beginning at the close of last June, we forbade the participation in sports, not of any of the first-year students, but of every student who had ever participated in any subsidy directly, indirectly or in any other way; and instead of printing that in our programs and nailing it to our bulletin boards (where it has been nailed in every college campus, I presume, since the beginning), we did not reissue it at all, but we quietly and efficaciously went to work and carried it out. We demanded that every inter-

collegiate contestant should keep up in his studies. In order to make sure of this, the two offices of Director of Studies and Director of Athletics were combined in one. The axe fell upon the captain of the football team immediately, and it kept falling during all the preliminary days of September until, when the real, live practice began, there were just two members of last year's football team remaining on the team, and (not to make a point out of a small difference) those two members were last year freshmen. Of the coming baseball team for the next season I fancy there is exactly the same ratio—there will be just two of the old members left on that team. Now all the other men who were last year on the team, with one exception, are still in the university, are still following their studies, and I think now with some profit. It is a noteworthy fact that the demand to clean things up in athletics began quietly last year among the undergraduates through the medium of the College Journal. Among other reasons urged upon the editors for taking up the campaign, this personal argument was advanced: "In the present state of college athletics there is no opening for a good, fair, honest student who wants to get his share of the game. He starts out to compete for admission to the 'varsity squad and develops his skill and muscle; his aspirations are just ripe for fruition when the coach, traveling down the railroad line the next day, finds a heavier man in a mill, brings him up, and he is entered for a course in landscape gardening and two or three other equally severe electives that make it possible for him to compete."

The fact is that to-day we find that the best of our students and the finest fellows in our university are very glad that the change has come, and that now the purposes of athletics are to draw out from the university the athletic skill that is in it, instead of bringing into the university the multitudinous athletic skill that is without it. The result this fall has been that the 'varsity football team has lost every game but two; the climax was reached yesterday with a defeat of 76 to 0. If scores are the thing, and if we must win games, the change of athletic policy was a hideous failure. If scores are not the things, but manhood; if it be true that we can go down among our young men and win their hearts and make them

see things with accuracy and look to our ideals and actually sacrifice themselves for a principle; why, then, we are doing something for our students that will mend things all along the line permanently, and we shall not look forward to the petty dishonesty of athletics to be repeated in civic dishonesty or financial dishonesty. We do not now look with approval upon pressure being brought upon the actual subject to correct the evils of his athletic sports, but we ask to throw the burden back where it belongs—on the authorities. Let those that are in high places come down from the platform and deal with the problem practically, and where they find abuse and error and evil remove it instead of lopping off the whole game; nay—for this is my contention—not even cutting off the first-year men from their proper participation in intercollegiate contests.

SHOULD COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES REFUSE
TO ALLOW ANY STUDENT TO COMPETE
IN AN INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETIC
CONTEST UNTIL HE SHALL
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YEAR'S WORK?

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The topic under discussion, "Should Colleges and Universities Refuse to Allow Any Student to Compete in an Intercollegiate Athletic Contest Until He Shall Have Completed One Year's Work?" is one which I am unable to answer by a simple "Yes" or "No."

I should say that we should refuse to allow any student to represent our respective university or college in his first year, if—

- He comes from another college or university.
- He has a degree.
- He is taking less than a certain number of hours per week.
- He is unable to hold the required stand in his studies.
- He is repeating work.
- He is over a certain age.

When a boy who graduates from a preparatory school and has passed his entrance examinations to college cannot only do his class room work, but can also make his university athletic team, I see no good reason why we should prevent him from doing so.

What we do want to prevent is a student leaving college and going to another for some athletic reason; a man with a degree playing against undergraduates; a man of twenty-five playing against a boy of eighteen; a man going to college to play football and not for an education.

Last spring the Interacademic Association of Philadelphia adopted the following rules:

Section 1. No boy who has once been admitted to college by examination or otherwise, or who is pursuing a course of study requiring less than eighteen recitations per week, shall be eligible to compete in any interacademic contest.

Section 3. No boy who on or before the first of October has completed his twentieth year shall thereafter be eligible to compete in any interacademic contest.

Section 5. No boy who has been a member of, or in any way classified with the graduating class of any school in the association, shall, after the graduation of said class, be eligible to compete in any interacademic contest if he has ever won a point in the track meet or taken part in any football, baseball or cricket contest of this association.

Section 6. No boy entering a school in this association from any other school is eligible to play in any interacademic contest until he has been in actual and continuous attendance at the school which he desires to represent for one calendar year.

Preparatory schools adopting a similar code of eligibility rules would furnish a good foundation on which to build a uniform code of rules for the colleges. Such a code adopted by our leading colleges would immediately clear the athletic atmosphere, and the public would no longer be deluged annually by exaggerated newspaper stories of charges of professionalism and protests made by one college against another.

Among college men such things ought not to occur, and an earnest effort should be made to place our athletics on a plane

where scholarship is the determining factor and not professionalism.

Our amateur standards are to my mind now out of date. They discriminate against the poor boy with athletic ability. Many a college student has come out of college in debt in order that he might represent his university on the athletic field, when he might easily have paid his college expenses, or a good part of them, by playing summer baseball. The rule was adopted, I suppose, to prevent a man who had made athletics his profession from competing against novices; but with our rules based upon a scholarship standard such a man would never be found upon our college teams.

There may have been a demand for such a rule at one time, but under our changed conditions and with a proper code of rules I can see no good reason for clinging to it. I am speaking now only of college athletics, and not of the rules which govern athletics outside.

I would like to know in just what way the matter of a student playing summer baseball would make him any better able to play good baseball if he was paid for it than if he played on the same team "just for fun." How can the matter of dollars and cents increase a man's ability in this line? It cannot do it. A student who plays summer baseball and is paid for it is no better able to make his "varsity" team than one who plays and isn't paid for it, unless he is naturally a better player. The matter of his receiving money does not make him the better player.

Then, why should we put any barriers in the way of a young man trying to get an education by forcing him to do work that is uncongenial to him in order to pay his expenses?

I will admit that under the existing conditions this scheme would be impossible, owing to the difference in the matriculation examinations.

Make the entrance examinations into every department of the college or university equivalent or, if that is not feasible, allow only those departments whose matriculation examinations are equivalent to the academic department to furnish the material for the teams.

Then the adoption of a code of rules along the lines of the following would effectually control athletics:

First. Every member of every athletic team shall have properly matriculated and be a regular student in his department.

Second. He shall be required to take a certain number of hours per week.

Third. He shall be required to hold a certain stand in his work.

Fourth. No student shall be allowed to represent his college or university if he has received a degree; if he is repeating work, having failed in his examinations or resigned from his class for any reason other than serious illness; if he is over a certain age.

Fifth. One-year rule to apply to students from other colleges.

Under the above rules we would not need the four years' clause if the age limit was right.

Sixth. Any college offering special inducements of any nature to promising athletes shall lose its standing and forfeit all athletic privileges in that sport for one year.

Suppose the question we are now discussing was adopted by our leading colleges, it would still allow men to play against boys; graduates against undergraduates; repeaters against good students, and consequently experience against inexperience. If we are going in for reform in intercollegiate athletics, let us put ourselves on record as standing for something which, if adopted now, or ten years from now, will accomplish that for which we are striving, namely, that members of our athletic teams shall be, first, good students; second, good athletes—and that the poor boy shall have an opportunity to pay his expenses through college without professionalism affecting his eligibility.

At first an assertion like the latter falls with a shock on a certain class of people, and immediately the idea comes into their minds, "Why, that is taking a step backward: that is retrogression, not progression; that pulls down this amateur structure we have been so carefully rearing in the past decade."

When a structure has fulfilled its mission it is time for it to go, and as our amateur rules to-day are aristocratic and not democratic, favoring the boy with means and working against the poor boy, I say throw them out and make scholarship the

basis of our athletic teams. Give the poor boy a fair chance in competition with his more favored brother, or as near fair as it is possible to make it.

If the college world at large really wants reform, they can get it easily enough. The trouble is—each college thinks the other is going to benefit just a trifle more by the new rules than it will itself, and so it balks at any change and prefers to stick to the old regime.

If such be the case now, and all this talk we hear is nothing but talk, then I think the general application of the one-year rule would be a very good thing under existing conditions.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR B. V. CISSEL, ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—I believe I am called upon here (and I feel the great honor, indeed) to answer some of these arguments. I feel entirely unable, of course, to refute all the arguments I have heard, and I will refute them in this way: I believe they are all right. Everything I heard, I think, is right. This is a subject which is agitating the whole country at the present time, from our President down; and as our friend from Georgetown has said, the gentleman from the shops as well as others are among those who are being discovered as playing men.

I have been interested in one phase or another of athletics for almost twenty years. I am getting to be an old man, as you see; I graduated from this college; therefore, I feel it becoming in me to speak of the subject from the standpoint of the smaller colleges. We have heard the discussion from the larger colleges. I believe in giving a man's personal experience on a subject. As to the first-year rule, it may be a very good instrument to discourage certain evils with which all these colleges are beset; and, of course, among the most evident of those evils and the one which is perhaps the most degrading is that evil of recruiting. I mean by that the work done by men who are interested in athletics, particularly, scouring the country, not for good, capable students who would be a credit to the institution, but simply for men who

are able to play good football or men who are large enough and strong enough to mash down half a dozen decent men of ordinary size.

If we looked over our football teams at the present day I do not think the men of old days need fear for the development of mankind; if some of our friends with whom we are disagreeing on the score of strategy, strength and ability, went out and looked on some of these football teams of the present day they would wonder how any of those present players would ever be able to get into the armor of our ancestors; I don't think they would get anywhere near it.

As to the first-year man, I believe emphatically that any man who is a *bona fide* student in the pure sense, who has entered the college unsought from an athletic standpoint, who is clean, unsolicited, unpaid, I think has a perfect right to play on any team, to be present in any convention of the students in any college. Have we the right, who are educators, heads of institutions, have we the right to say to certain boys who come to us as young men to have their character formed, to be developed to good men and citizens of the United States; is it justice, have we the right to say that those men must be denied the privilege to go out on the athletic field, go out on the campus any place and engage in games for their benefit physically and to use up the little recreation hours we have the best way they see fit? I feel that all the fun has been lost from the sport. I take it that football is fun: some of them take it as hard work; it is hard work at the present time; because why? we have had all the fun, all the pleasure of seeing a game; we have had it all legislated out of the game.

Gentlemen, there are too many rules, too many regulations; we cannot follow them all; we cannot interpret them all; and we cannot put them into effect. What do you want? We want pure athletics, free from professionalism, commercialism and all the evils with which we are beset at the present day; we want to be free of them. How can we be free? We want members of the faculties of the colleges to be interested in the athletics. We want those men to come out and see that our young men are getting a square deal; and how can they get a square deal in athletics? As our friend from Georgetown has put it in much better language than I can hope to, we

must see that these men coming in are honest men, and what they are coming for is an honest purpose. If they are coming in as men who want to be good students, and if they are good students in good standing so far as we are concerned, why have we to ask whether these men are able to make a team the first year or the second year? Certainly, we are taking away from a man, if we take away his first year's athletic opportunities, the pleasures that he should have; when we say he may not be on any of the athletic teams representing our colleges, that takes away from him the incentive to go out and develop himself along certain lines necessary to give him a place on the team. Now we all know that football (and I take it we are more or less discussing football) under certain circumstances may be regarded as a rough game; but, played under proper supervision, with all honest college men, we will find out it is not a brutal game. It is not a brutal game, but it is a game which breeds kindness and self-restraint. The game teaches hardihood and manliness, courage and physical address, self-government and discipline.

If we send a son into the world and he is given advantage of all these features which go to make up a good man, what more can we ask? Now comes a question, Would the first-year rule give us all these things? I think that all the good the first-year rule would accomplish would be, of course, to postpone the professionalism and the professionals for one year.

We want to have men in the faculties with the courage of their convictions; we do not want men who have a name, in athletics, as "our weak brethren." I believe Caspar Whitney has named them, in the game of football, as the weak brethren. He has also spoken of us who wink the other eye. Now, I think there is a good deal of winking of the other eye; and if we stop winking the other eye we will stop the abuses in our athletics. All that is necessary for us is to have the courage of our convictions and see that the regulations they have are carried out. We have enough regulations to fill volumes of books; we have all the regulations we want; we want no more; we want pure athletics. How will we get it? Will the one-year rule get it? I think not. We want to get rid of the gladiatorial exhibitions we see every day in the

larger institutions. How can we get rid of these? We want to do away, gentlemen, with the professional coach, with the professional trainer. In my mind the professional coach and professional trainer are the men who have brought the game of football down to almost a wreck. At the present day they have taken away from it all its best features; all the principal features of the game which we knew in the older days have been destroyed and eliminated. Why, when we see a team go on the field the plays and the players are hidden under a mass of beef, we cannot see the plays. We want the game open. How can we get it open? We must have men on the rules committee who will see to it that we do have the game played according to the rules under which gentlemen should always compete.

We have on the rules committee to-day (these are the rules actually governing the game) men who have declared themselves as past a sensitive age. Now, we don't want men on our rules committee who have passed a sensitive age; because if we do, those men are not good men to listen to the cry for the open game. We want to come back to the old days when it was a rare occasion that we ever heard of a man who was seriously injured; when we had open field athletics; and if we had an injury, it was that of a small fracture of some kind; that was not a serious injury. One might get his nose broken or his collar-bone broken; there are none of us who will acknowledge a particle of suffering, or will hold off from such a thing as a collar-bone broken when it comes to the time of displaying his ability, to increasing the spirit of the college.

We want sport for sport's sake. Mr. Walter Camp has suggested a ten-yard rule (this is sort of getting away from the one-year rule); we want the ten-yard rule and we want rules which shall say that the quarter-back on a team must pass the ball a certain distance: in other words, we want an open game. As for the one-year rule prohibiting men from playing on any team, I consider that any man who in a college is a *bona fide* and an unsolicited man, has a perfect right to take part in any game to develop himself, and he also develops the game and develops the good name of his college. We want good American sports, because we know that good American sportsmen are certainly the salt of the earth.

DR. THOMPSON H. LANDON, OF BORDENTOWN MILITARY INSTITUTE.—We have had a large representation of the colleges; it may not be out of place to have a word from the preparatory schools. This is an association of colleges and preparatory schools. I rise rather to say one thing, and that is, that I suppose probably a stenographer is taking these discussions down; they will be printed in the book, which we all receive, of the transactions of this Association; that book, however, is only seen by a very few people comparatively, namely, ourselves; and I wish to say here publicly that if the Father from Georgetown University will furnish the manuscript or a revised copy of his address this afternoon, I will be responsible for its being published in pamphlet form and a copy being sent to the presidents of the universities and colleges of this country at my own expense. The reason why I say this is simply because for years I have been convinced that it only needed manly courage and the strength of conviction to put this thing just where it could easily be put if our college faculties, and especially our college and university presidents, would act like men and be willing, as this gentleman has shown himself to be, to suffer, if need be, for his convictions' sake.

I don't know when I have either read or heard a more admirable presentation of the high moral attainments to be reached through this football game, rightly conducted, than I have heard this afternoon from this representative from Georgetown; and I say again—I would like to say a great many other things, but I want to say this: I say again that I shall be glad to be at the expense of putting a copy of this into the hands of every one who has the government of preparatory schools or colleges. And in view of the interest he has shown in this matter, I will begin with the President of the United States.

PRESIDENT WARFIELD, OF LAFAYETTE COLLEGE.—There are two phases of this question. And it is a sad commentary on the present condition of athletics in our educational institutions that the one which has chiefly occupied the attention of the speakers has to do with the participation in our sports of persons whose right to participate in them is open to serious question. It is certainly unfortunate that the moral tone of

such institutions is not above all suspicion of professionalism or any kindred irregularity. Grave as this evil is, we are scarcely in a position to deal seriously with it. Yet we will do well to put on record our conviction that the same tone of intellectual honesty should pervade school and college athletics as is to be expected of educated gentlemen in every activity of life.

But the other phase of this question seems to me especially pertinent in such a meeting as this, because it involves the relationship of the school to the college. The real tie between these institutions is not intellectual, but personal, and is embodied in the boy. The college takes its students from the school, and the school naturally wishes to know what the college is going to do with them. This Association has frequently discussed the transition from school to college, and we are all familiar with its difficulties and dangers. Certainly, if the object of the boy in going to college is to get an education with a sound intellectual foundation, it is not wise to plunge him immediately on entering college into any of the diversions of college life.

I am fully persuaded that the freshman year should be given wholly to the assimilation of the ideals and traditions of the college and not to the representation of the college in anything outside its walls.

And I must take exception to what has been said by the representative of Georgetown University, to the effect that the object of college athletics is public athletic contests. I think that the main objects of college athletics are, first, physical training, and, second, recreation. Public athletic contests are at best an incident to the real athletic life of the college, and the peril of the present situation is to be found in just the fact that they have engrossed the place of more important objects.

I value the element of recreation very highly. Everything which turns play into work, sport into business, recreation into an engrossing pursuit, should be regarded with concern. The student needs relaxation, he does not require an absorbing occupation. Contests in athletics are desirable in so far as they give expression to the normal capacity of school and college in athletic skill. Organization is good, but over-

organization is evil, because it sacrifices the man to the organization.

Let me illustrate by a familiar story: Mr. Huxley, it is said, was invited by a young acquaintance to join him in a game of billiards at his club. The philosopher opened the game, and his opponent at once ran out the game in a single inning. Instead of receiving the praise which he expected, Mr. Huxley said to him: "My young friend, I am accustomed to regard a reasonable degree of skill at billiards as one of the accomplishments of a gentleman, but such skill as you have just displayed can only be the consequence of a mis-spent youth."

One of the consequences of every step toward professionalism is the demand for a higher degree of skill than is attainable in the leisure of an educated gentleman. I hope we shall hold fast to the ideal that college athletics shall be the product of the reasonable leisure of gentlemen and scholars.

The trend of discussion makes it desirable to distinguish between the physical director and the professional coach. The former is always desirable if employed by the school or college authorities, and a permanent factor in the life of the institution, interested in the attainment of a symmetrical manhood by those under his direction, as well as the winning of contests. The coach is at best a temporary expedient, and one of very doubtful place in any scheme of education.

CHANCELLOR S. B. McCORMICK, WESTERN UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.—I hope these three addresses will be put in such form that a large number of people may see them. Wherein, however, the paper of Dr. Sharpe differs from that of Father Macksey, the former presents the more effective plan for eliminating the evils existing in athletics; and I say this, though I agree with Dr. Landon in the opinion that I never heard a more clear, eloquent and forcible presentation of this subject than that given us by Father Macksey. More just, more effective, more in accordance with common sense, is the method of dealing with these perplexing problems suggested by Dr. Sharpe, and, therefore, it seems to me to be best, excellent as the other suggestions have been. I trust, however, that all three of these most able addresses will be printed and generally distributed.

THIRD SESSION

Friday, December 1st, at 8 P. M.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

SECONDARY ENGLISH ONCE MORE.

PRESIDENT RUSH RHEES, UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER.

Of late years we have heard many complaints that the English work in preparation of students for college is unsatisfactory. The dissatisfaction of the colleges was clearly voiced in this Association by President Remsen in his president's address two years ago, while the dissatisfaction of the secondary schools was as distinctly expressed by Mrs. Brownell-Saunders in her paper read before this Association at Syracuse four years ago. These utterances before our Association appear not to be isolated complaints, but rather to express a somewhat widely spread conviction that present conditions call for such changes as may be necessary to produce somewhat radically different results. It, therefore, seems opportune for us to consider what is the justification for these complaints.

It seems peculiarly suitable for us to give this subject our consideration, inasmuch as this Association took the lead in 1893-4 in formulating the uniform entrance requirements, to which requirements the English work in secondary schools has been almost universally conformed, even where it has not been avowedly based upon them.

As a college man I desire to acknowledge at the outset that a burden of responsibility rests upon the colleges, in so far as it may be demonstrable that the college requirements as announced in our catalogues and as interpreted by our entrance examinations have determined the methods of instruction which the secondary schools have adopted. More specifically, the responsibility is ours if the unsatisfactory conditions of which the schools and colleges alike are making complaint are properly attributable to the kind of instruction which our requirements demand. On the other hand, the responsibility

must rest with the secondary schools if the present unsatisfactory condition results from misdirected or unintelligent teaching in the secondary schools. I have no desire by nice division to distribute upon different shoulders the measure of responsibility for the present conditions, but hope rather to inquire whether in our eagerness to secure ends which are excellent we have inadvertently lost sight of other ends which are essential.

At the meeting of this Association held with the Johns Hopkins University in 1894, when the committee appointed to devise a uniform definition of college entrance requirements in English made its report, Professor Bright, of Johns Hopkins, summarized what he called "the implied doctrine of the report" under the following four heads:

First. "Every pupil in the secondary school should receive guidance and counsel in reading books as literature and in acquiring the habit of storing up in the mind notable lines from the poets.

Second. "Every pupil in the secondary schools should be trained and encouraged in writing his own language.

Third. "By easy and natural gradation every pupil in the secondary schools shall be taught to perceive the grammatical structure of his vernacular, and those features of expression which give to language clearness, precision, effectiveness—which adapt language to thought and emotion.

Fourth. "Every pupil in the secondary schools should be required to *study* several representative books, poems and essays, so that he may know them in some true sense as literature, that from them and from reflection upon the conditions of their production he may be introduced to a perception of the fundamental principles of literature as an art, with respect to its forms, its functions, its history."

Inasmuch as Professor Bright was a member of the committee which formulated the new uniform requirements, his summary of the points essential in secondary instruction in English may reasonably be taken as authoritative.

Of his four points, the second and third, namely, instruction in writing and instruction in grammar and simple rhetoric, represent the features of secondary English work which the schools are left to develop as they deem best, without more

specific suggestion from the college requirements. The first of his points represents the instruction which is demanded in connection with the first list of prescribed books, those assigned for "reading and practice." The fourth represents the teaching called for in connection with the second list of books, those prescribed for "study and practice." It is to his second and third points, namely, grammatical and rhetorical training, that I ask your more particular attention.

The requirements suggest and the remarks of Professor Bright avow that it is expected that the work of the classes upon the books assigned for reading and the books assigned for study, if they do not incidentally furnish all the necessary opportunity for training in grammar and rhetoric and English expression, will at least contribute very largely thereto, and it is certain that some schools (by no means all) infer from the definition of the college entrance requirements that it is safe to assume that increasing familiarity with the masterpieces of English literature, and study of their structure, will confirm in students, as a sort of educational by-product, sensitiveness for grammatical correctness and an instinct for rhetorical clearness, if not for form and felicity of style. In this connection it is of interest to note that the strongest and most numerous criticisms of the result of the English work in the secondary schools rest upon the inability or carelessness shown by college freshmen in the matter of grammatical and clear English expression.

In order that impressions which I have formed from my own experience and observation might be illuminated or corrected by the views and experience of others, I recently asked several college teachers of English to answer a group of questions concerning the present results of secondary teaching in English, as these results appear in their classes; and I also asked from a group of public high schools and private academies answers to similar questions concerning their experience with the teaching of English in conformity with the college entrance requirements. In these questions I have not sought for data from which to form an induction, otherwise my inquiry should have been much more extensive as well as more specific. Considering the opinions expressed in the answers I have received simply as means for correction or illumination of opinions

which have been based upon personal experience and observation, I shall ask your patience while I report some of the results. My canvass has brought me twenty-three answers from English teachers and presidents in seventeen different colleges located in New England and the Middle States, and from English teachers or principals in sixteen public high schools and thirteen private schools or academies. The secondary schools addressed by my inquiries were chosen as representative schools, mostly from the Middle States, some of them being the public high schools in our larger cities, some of them representatives of the better class of high schools in smaller communities, some of them prominent private schools and academies in New England and the Middle States. The colleges were asked to indicate the proportion of freshmen, admitted on the present English requirements, who are careless or ill trained in the use of grammatical and clear English in their college work. A few, namely, Amherst, Columbia, Pennsylvania and Princeton, report that from five to ten per cent of their freshmen show such carelessness or ill training in work offered to the English department in college. Nine others report from twenty-five to fifty per cent of such careless or ill trained students. Two, namely, Yale and Johns Hopkins, report over fifty per cent and Williams says "the percentage is certainly very large, and the man who is systematically clear and correct in expressing his thought is the exception." These percentages, of course, represent impressions rather than accurate statistics, and it is altogether probable that the five to ten per cent of the first group includes only men who are systematically ungrammatical and slovenly, while the fifty per cent and over of the last group includes the men who are also frequently careless, though not habitually and uniformly so. It is probably safe to say in general that from twenty to forty per cent of the freshmen admitted on the present requirements are careless or ill trained in English expression. The answers to my inquiries, therefore, confirm President Remsen's strictures in his address of two years ago.

To form an intelligent estimate of the meaning of these facts I have asked the group of secondary schools what proportion of the time devoted to English work is given by them to training in English expressions. The answers show that,

as might have been expected, the practice varies greatly with the different schools—so greatly, in fact, that any generalization from the answers is quite impossible. About a quarter of the schools which give answer to these questions say that they give more time to training in expression than to the study of the literature, while about three-quarters give more time to the literature than to the study of expression, and there seems to be a tendency to do less work on the training in expression in the last year of the secondary course than in the earlier stages of that course. The practice of these schools undoubtedly represents the work of the better class of high schools and private academies. They also probably represent fairly the schools which send students to college. In the light of their testimony we cannot charge upon these schools a lack of attention to training in English expression.

The unsatisfactory preparation of the careless or ill trained students sent by these schools to the colleges offers, therefore, a challenge to the efficiency rather than to the amount of their training in English expression.

It is not enough, however, to direct attention simply to the work in the English departments of our colleges and high schools. I believe that any one whose preparation for college was made twenty-five years ago or more, before the recent development of interest in the teaching of literature in the secondary schools, and also before the development of the departmental organization of many of our high schools, will testify that much of his best training in English expression was found in the work of other classes. The older teachers of Latin and Greek, who always insisted on idiomatic English translations and on the avoidance of English words cognate to those found in the text, gave us much of our most efficient training in English expression. The older practice in mathematical demonstrations, when teachers required the complete statement of theorems and the complete exposition of geometrical and algebraic demonstrations, added further to the training of students in clear English expression. My observation has led me to suspect that since the development of departmental organization in our secondary schools teachers are becoming more absorbed with the subject matter of their teaching, which is good, and somewhat ready to leave to the English

department the responsibility for the students' work in English, which is a misfortune. I, therefore, asked my group of secondary schools to what extent attention is now paid to the form and correctness of English expression in their classes in languages, mathematics, history and science. As might have been expected, all the schools reported that all departments were required to exercise care concerning the pupils' use of English. Some of the principals, however, reported that, while this was expected, the performance leaves much room for improvement. The most discriminating answer which I had was from a principal of this Association, who is very well known to us all. He writes: "Your question can be answered only in one way: In theory, all teachers in *all* departments require clear and grammatical English expression; but, as a matter of fact, the demands of the present generation of language teachers for reading 'without translating' have so greatly increased as to diminish the amount of idiomatic English in use in our classes. To this one may add that the rising demands for grammar in language teaching, for the use of technical terminology in mathematics and in science, do tend to diminish the actual quantity of literary English expression which is audible in my recitation rooms. I hear in the mathematical rooms the jargon of mathematics; in the classical recitations the curious lingo of the Latin and Greek grammarians; in the science rooms the clumsy terminology of chemistry, physics, botany, increasing from year to year. The case with history seems to be entirely different. No one can make a recitation in history without receiving a great deal of training in expository English. I consider my history teacher the most valuable of all my teachers of English."

To supplement my inquiries addressed to the schools I asked the chief of the examinations division of the New York State Education Department to give me his impression. As you all doubtless know, Mr. Wheelock was for many years one of the leading inspectors under the Board of Regents before he was transferred to be chief of the examinations division of the department. His reply is so pertinent to our present interest that I venture to give it to you. "It is my judgment that teachers of the classics and of modern languages are not giving as careful attention to the English of the translations as was

given when I was preparing for college, and I am very sure that teachers of mathematics are not demanding of their students the clear, concise, idiomatic form of statement that I have always thought essential to the best results in a mathematical study. Teachers in science are perhaps the greatest sinners of all in this particular. If you could spend a day in our office I could put you in possession of an enormous amount of material substantiating, I think, the statements that I have made above."

A most significant comment which bears upon the effectiveness of the high school training in English expression is made by a principal of one of the best of our public high schools. He writes: "In regard to written work in English, I took the opportunity of comparing some of the papers that our fourth-year students handed in with those of the students of the first year, and as far as form, penmanship and the technical part of the writing was concerned, the advantage lay with the students of the first year."

If, as is clear, we are not justified in suspecting that the secondary schools are neglecting to give attention to work in English expression, it seems to be equally clear that the time which they spend in such training is not effective in producing the results that should be expected from it; that, on the contrary, in some, at least, of the better schools the methods adopted for training in English expression leave the students at the end of their secondary course no more the masters of that art of expression than they were when they left the grammar school.

If this state of things is at all general, it forms a most interesting matter for comparison with the expectation cherished by the colleges when the uniform entrance requirements were adopted. It would seem that every pupil in the secondary school is not successfully taught by "easy and natural gradation to perceive the grammatical construction of his vernacular and those features of expression which give to language clearness, precision and effectiveness—which adapt language to thought and emotion."

This disappointment of our expectation suggests some comments which I must confess are offered with diffidence, inasmuch as I am able to speak simply as an observer, not as an

English specialist, and yet feel constrained to differ somewhat from the eminent leaders who devised our present requirements. There can be no question that for a good English style a generous knowledge of the English writers is essential. Reading maketh a full man in respect of facility of expression, as well as of wealth of thought. The great poets and prose writers reveal the marvelous beauty and flexibility of our mother tongue, its aptness to express every emotion with delicate completeness, every thought with exactness, every purpose with power, and all with rare conciseness, charm and beauty. Only as one has come under the spell of some master of passion, or thought, or conviction, who has made the language his instrument and uttered his soul through it, can one appreciate the wealth of that language and its responsiveness to every demand.

So it is with one who would be a musician. The marvels of melody and harmony wrought out by Bach, Mozart, Beethoven, Schumann, Chopin, Wagner, Brahms and their peers must be known and loved by one who would play well a piano, violin or other great instrument. The youth who aspires to paint cannot imagine the dignity and possibilities of the medium through which he longs to express himself until he has known and loved the great treasures of the early masters, of Raphael and his contemporaries, and of the modern leaders.

Yet no lover of painting would think of permitting a student who aspires to artistic power simply to study these masters, analyze them, and understand them. The novice must, before all things else, master the technique of his art, the principles and the practice of drawing, of light and shade, of color, of composition. To gain this technique he must submit to constant drill until the use of the brush and pencil has become a second nature, and his hand responds at once and with truth to the ideals which he seeks to picture on tablet and canvas. That now and then a genius arises who seems to be superior to this need for unwearying practice in technique, simply marks him as a genius and exception.

Some years ago an enthusiastic listener, charmed with the bird-like notes which flowed from the flute of a skilled performer, asked him with gushing enthusiasm how it was possible for him to obtain such a mastery, and the German replied

with stolid complacency, "O, madame, that is easy—it is ten hours a day for fourteen years." The five-finger exercises and the scales must be practiced year in, year out, until the fingers unconsciously respond to the musical thought and feeling, as the organ tone answers immediately to the organist's touch.

These illustrations are pertinent for the reason that our current methods of English teaching seem to be obscuring the fact that the power to express thought and feeling in correct, clear and fit language is an art rather than a science; in fact, one of the finest and most subtle of arts. Like all arts, it rests upon scientific principles which must be known and understood, but the knowledge of the principles cannot in this or any other art take the place of drill in the art's technique, continued until its mastery has become as second nature. Our present practice discloses one of two errors. Either we are assuming that all necessary drill in the fundamentals of English expression has been or should be completed in the grammar schools, an assumption which is false in fact, and false also in idea; or we are vainly relying upon the expectation that analysis of literary forms and knowledge of the content of literary masterpieces will produce in our secondary students skill in the use of the fundamental elements of linguistic expression, by some sort of natural or subconscious absorption of correct ideals through familiarity with the treasures of English literature.

No one could wish that our schools should revive the old mechanical and disheartening exercises in formal grammar and the dreary recitations in rhetoric, which in an earlier generation so failed to give life to English studies that the reaction to our present program was welcomed as a great emancipation. Yet our experience is clearly declaring to us that if our youth are to become expert in the use of correct and clear English, there must be some return to methods of drill and constant practice on the elements of correct expression, of such a sort that students will not simply know what clear and correct English is and why it is clear and correct, but will also have such an instinct for it that obscure or false expression can no more go unchallenged by the eye and ear than the moral conscience can pass without remonstrance a lie or a theft.

Such drill should seek to develop in the students what I may call a grammatical conscience. It is not necessary that students should learn grammatical rules with unreasoning, parrot-like thoughtlessness. The difference between an indicative and subjunctive verb is capable of clear and interesting exposition. Pupils can be made to feel the distinction between a direct and an indirect object. The true force of different conjunctions in showing the relations of clauses and of prepositions in showing the relations of words may be discovered to a pupil. And these fundamental elements of the science of our language will give to the pupil the foundation for his practice in it. Moreover, if they are to avail, they must not be simply observed, but practiced, practiced over and over again, and practiced systematically, until the ear and the eye have been so habituated to the correct form that a false use will be at once detected and condemned, as promptly and automatically, let me repeat, as the moral sense rebukes a moral wrong.

The need for such drill through all the years of the secondary school is greatly increased by the fact that in many cases the school is the only influence to counteract for our young people the effect of incorrect or careless speech in many of the homes; and, what is still more difficult, to counterbalance the subtle influence of the ungrammatical language of the street, which exercises a fateful charm over young minds, leading them to feel that colloquial incorrectness is of better currency than the standard of the school. Against this baleful charm the reading of standard literature may be quite unavailing. Pupils do not wish to be bookish. They hate to be regarded as prigs. Not until an automatic sense for grammatical correctness has been formed can the charm of true speech be felt. As soon as that sense has been fully developed the student may be allowed to play, if he like, with the popular phrases. His own sense of correctness will preserve him from contamination by them, and the charm of good literature may then affect and control him, enriching and ennobling his speech by the influence of the highest example. If, however, such drill in grammatical correctness is to awaken thus a grammatical conscience in the pupils, the example of all the teachers of the school must be conscientiously correct, and their demand

for correct English from their pupils must be constant. In fact, it may be said that the habits of speech of the teachers of other classes than the English may exert more influence than the English teachers themselves, by proving that what the English teachers require is the current necessity of the best speech in practical life.

Side by side with such a drill in grammatical correctness we need training in rhetorical clearness, training so exact, so varied and so continuous that in this matter also an instinct for what is clear shall be developed, with the result that confused and inaccurate statement cannot be complacently tolerated by the students' mind. Such an instinct for clearness rests fundamentally upon a logical conscience, for it is commonplace that a man whose thought is perfectly clear seldom has difficulty in giving to it clear expression. Now the training of the logical conscience, that is of an automatic sense for true thinking, is the task of all teachers in secondary schools—and in colleges as well—for the unfolding of the mind is essentially the development of its power to think clearly and truly.

It is not enough, however, that by the study of mathematics, of language, of science, we should strive to develop in our students intolerance for all inaccuracy of thought and fallacy of conclusion. It is needful that they be trained in the accurate expression of clear thought, even as the painter must not simply see form truly, but must be able in his drawing to represent it as he sees it. Our schools owe it to their pupils that their minds be so trained to demand complete statement of a thought, that an unfinished sentence will challenge attention and impatience as instantly as an unfinished bridge.

I believe that we have met with a distinct loss of power in our education in so far as our teachers have relaxed their demand that answers to questions in class must take the form of complete sentences. I suspect that teachers are oftentimes so eager to save time in order to press on to new matters with their classes that abrupt statements and vague hints are accepted in reply to questions, thus begetting in the students a careless and incoherent habit of thought and expression. The German schoolmasters may be over-formal in their demand for complete sentences and for the repetition in full form of

the questions which are to be answered; yet they undoubtedly train their students in complete and accurate statement.

Moreover, I must confess to something of regret at the relaxing in our mathematical class rooms of the demand for complete and well formed demonstrations of geometrical and algebraical problems. The substitution of the equation for the sentence in geometrical demonstrations contributes to economy of time. That economy is dearly won, however, if by it we rob our students of the most valuable training they can get in exact and rigid exposition of exact and conclusive thinking.

I believe that in this matter of rhetorical training the secondary teachers of English are conscientiously striving to give the pupil the mastery he needs. The analysis of sentences and paragraphs in readings chosen from our great literature is of inestimable value in that it compels the student to consider how the master of English writing used the language for the clear and effective expression of his thought. It gives to the rules of grammar and the theorems of rhetoric a vital illustration. Moreover, the theme and composition work in our modern schools is an immense advance upon the older practice, and in no one thing do the teachers of to-day show more completely their devotion to their task than in their unwearing attention to the reading and the criticism of these themes. Yet experience seems to show that the results obtained are inadequate. I am not interested at present in the question whether the percentage of illiteracy in college men to-day is greater or less than twenty-five years ago, although that is a very interesting and significant inquiry. I am simply asking whether the methods of our instruction are producing the results which may naturally be expected from so much devotion and energy. It would seem that in the mind of many a student the work in English for the department of English is a thing apart from the common daily use of the mother tongue, and I would again emphasize, what the Committee of Ten urged, that in this matter of clear expression, as in that of correct grammar, the other teachers in the school may exercise an even more potent influence than the English teachers. If the teachers of mathematics, of language, of science, of history, will insist upon clear and complete statements by their pupils in answer to

class questions, upon clear and accurate written work in examinations and note-books—and insist upon these things as essential to the satisfactory performance of the tasks assigned in the subjects taught in these classes—the instinct for clear statement may be most effectively developed. This is urged, not primarily in the interest of securing allies for the teachers of English, but simply in the interest of giving to the pupils the kind of drill and practice which is necessary if they are to become expert in the use of their mother tongue, if they are to develop such an automatic sense for clear and correct expression that offense against clearness and correctness in their own work or in that of others will immediately challenge their attention and disapproval.

Added to systematic practice in grammar and rhetoric, there is need for constant drill in another line, namely, for the development of the student's active vocabulary. The reading of good books which our requirements secure undoubtedly increases very largely what I may call the student's passive vocabulary, the range of words which he meets as old friends when he reads, and whose value he understands. The words which he finds at his command when he wishes to express his own thought are but a fraction, however, of this passive vocabulary. It is one object of training in English expression to increase this fraction as much as possible. This is obviously one of the results hoped for from the frequent themes and compositions called for in our English classes. A manifest advantage of theme-subjects drawn from the books assigned for reading is that such subjects are not within the range of the student's common experience, and, therefore, challenge him to express thoughts for which his ordinary vocabulary is inadequate. When thus challenged it may be hoped that the student will recall words met in his reading and will make them a part of his store for active use. This must of necessity be a slow process, however, for themes and compositions make but a faint demand for new words to express unfamiliar thoughts. Herein was the unique value of the old fashioned discipline of translation from a foreign language into English, pure, idiomatic, and independent. Some of us recall relentless teachers who would tolerate in our translations no careless sentences, no transferred genitive or ablative absolutes, no

indolent choice of English words cognate to words in the text. Recalling those old methods, we are in no mood to quarrel in general with the revolt against the minute, purely disciplinary teaching of the classics, and we rejoice in the newer interest in the classical literature, and in the life it represents. We welcome, therefore, the modern demand for ability to read rapidly, and without translating. Yet we long for some of the fruits of the old training, and venture to believe that even with a full provision for the rapid reading and the literary appreciation, a large minimum of the older drill in exact translation may with advantage be retained. Such exact and clear translation from a foreign language compels the student to summon to his use all his knowledge of English constructions, all his range of English words, all his familiarity with English idioms, in order that he may be able to select those forms of expression which will most accurately represent his text. But this exercise does more. It sets before the student the task of finding English expression for thoughts which are not his own, which, therefore, challenge him to range outside his own active vocabulary, and with the aid of dictionary and synonym book to select the word and give it the setting which will most truly represent what he understands by the text before him. I firmly believe that there is no one way in which schoolmasters, and English men in colleges, can contribute so much to the more adequate training of our youth in clear and felicitous English expression as by unremitting efforts to secure from all teachers of language at least a minimum of such close and exact drill in correct and idiomatic translation.

This form of drill is the most effective cure for the corrupting effect of the vocabulary of the street. In no other way is the use of current slang so demoralizing as in its impoverishing effect on what we have called the active vocabulary of the students. The insidious seduction of most slang phrases is the ease with which they are used to express widely different thoughts. They pass current by a sort of esoteric understanding. By suggesting either great approval, or intense disfavor, they satisfy the desire to convey to others an opinion, without requiring the user to take the trouble to make clear to himself precisely what his own opinion is. To inveigh against slang as a scholastic sin is impotent. Only by some exercise

which will require the close thought and the careful choice of words which the cant phrase discourages, can this poison of the slang habit be rendered innocuous. When so rendered innocuous, pupils may play with the slang word if they will; they have in their possession the habit of discriminating choice of words which will not fail them when need arises, even as the grammatical conscience protects against some popular or absurd solecism.

These three things are fundamental to any power to use our language as the means of expression. Let me name them again: an instinctive sense for correct grammatical usage, based on an understanding of grammatical principles; an instinctive intolerance of obscure and inaccurate statements, based on clear logical thinking, and a knowledge of rhetorical principles; and a trained sense for the right word fit to express a particular thought. And to secure these things the first and last essentials are drill and constant practice—such unremitting drill as is found needful for the mastery of technique in any other art.

I have chosen to accentuate this need for more constant and conscientious effort to fix in all secondary students habits of correct and clear expression, because our experience shows that it is in this respect chiefly that secondary English training shows unsatisfactory results. I trust that no one suspects that I think I am bringing to you any new doctrine or unfamiliar exhortation. Attention has been called to a familiar duty, for the reason that the more novel features of our uniform English requirements seem to have absorbed the active interest in many schools, even as they have received chief accentuation in many of our entrance examination papers.

There are other aspects of our current English requirements which it would be most interesting to consider. We all rejoice in the increase in our schools of the reading of masterpieces of English literature, and some of us wish the older secondary training might have provided this fuller introduction to our priceless literary heritage. It is disappointing, however, in answer to my questions to find that, while five colleges think the interest of freshmen in reading good literature has increased during the past ten years, eight think decidedly that it has not. From the secondary schools a somewhat more

is crowded. To add four hours more is impossible. The time for these new subjects can be obtained only by lessening the time given to some subjects already in the curriculum. From which shall time be taken? Natural science, because it combines such great utilitarian, with disciplinary value, is safe from attack. The classics are gradually yielding to modern languages, which, judged by their disciplinary and their utility value in opening up the modern world to the student, need more rather than less time. There remain only English and mathematics. Dare I be so heretical as to maintain that the formal study of English as measured by its results contrasted with its most liberal allowance of time could well furnish part of the four hours needed? This morning I am barred from attacking English, so there remains for me to take out a writ of quo warranto against mathematics and demand that it show cause why it holds the field as against civics and economics. What does it do in the way of fitting the boy for life that cannot be better done by these subjects, or rather, is what it does so valuable that it compensates for what is left undone in the education of the boy by the omission of these subjects.

I have often thought that the principal of the secondary school would act most wisely if, every year or two, he should put the teachers of each department of the school upon the rack, in the presence of the assembled faculty, and require them to justify the existence of their department in that school by showing, first, that they have a distinct aim to accomplish in doing certain definite things in the development of the boy; in the second place, that they are employing the best methods to accomplish their aim, and, thirdly, that they can show results which justify their aim and methods; or, to put it more concretely, require them to answer the question, "Do the educational results you obtain justify the amount of time that is allowed you in the curriculum of this school?"

This morning it is economics and civics which render mathematics a real service by asking it to answer the question, "By what right do you receive the present time-allowance in the secondary school curriculum?" Is your right one of prescription or are there reasons other than we-do-as-our-fathers-did which justify you in holding to the time you have and in not yielding up a portion of your time to these newer subjects

which some of us feel to be so necessary in the preparation of the boy for life? Mathematics may well reply, "The question is fair, and we propose to answer it; but first do you answer this, 'What are the claims of economics and civics which justify a disturbance of the present comfortable modus vivendi which we have attained after so much strife? We have been forced to make room for history. Should not the advocates of social sciences be content with that? Are you not forgetting that your own Committee of Seven reported against the separate teaching of economics and civics, and held that they could be best taught in connection with history?'"

This is not the time to thresh out that question. It is because of the belief of many of us that civics and economics have not been taught and cannot be adequately taught as a mere by-product of history, especially by the ordinary teacher of history, that we urge their incorporation in the school curriculum as separate studies. But why teach them at all in the secondary school? This brings up the fundamental question of the aim of the secondary school.

In an association such as this, we are too apt to look on the secondary school merely as a preparatory school for college, and since the proposed subjects are taught in college, we ask, "Why teach them in the school?" One of my assumptions was that the secondary school furnishes primarily a preparation for life, not for college. But does the curriculum of the secondary school, as we find it to-day, prepare the boy for life? This is too large a question to settle. We can but suggest some points wherein it fails.

What is the tendency in education at present, what is its distinguishing feature as compared with the education of our boyhood? Is it not the social element? Are we not more and more moulding our education to conform to the idea, "Homo ego sum"? Must we not then push to the front the social as distinguished from the purely individualistic studies? I think we all agree in holding that the school should aim to fit the boy for his environment. But do we realize that the environment to which he must adopt himself is an ever more complicated economic and political environment? A political riot in Russia adds one cent a gallon to the price of kerosene oil. A drought in Europe with rain in the United States ushers in

the boom of 1897 and the mushroom growth of the trust. The mint in India is closed, ten thousand men in Nevada are idle and the garment worker in Baltimore has his wages reduced. Fourteen million men vote on the quantity theory of money without knowing what it is. Holding that the foreigner pays the tax, the laborer pays \$12 for an \$8 suit, and the voter who does not know who pays the taxes, votes for a Tweed.

Does the school of to-day prepare a man to understand such questions as these? We used to think that because the school developed power, it developed power for any mental activity. We know now that linguistic power developed in the school does not carry with it the power to paint a picture or draw up a legal argument. We develop powers, not power. Modern languages, English, natural science, history, even the classics, bring men in contact with his fellow-men and help him to understand his many-sided environment, but they are not sufficient, they do not deal directly with the social and economic problems of modern life; they do not give the reasoning power which we employ in dealing with such subjects. If we would understand these subjects we must study the sciences which deal with them, namely, economics and civics.

What does mathematics do to fit the man for life? This past week I have been questioning my colleagues of the Mathematical Department as to the benefits derived by the boy in our school from the study of mathematics. With one accord they said, "The value is disciplinary, it has little or no utilitarian value, it develops power, trains the mind." "But," I said, "the psychologists tell us you cannot develop general power. Tell me exactly what algebra does, what geometry does, and which is more valuable for the boy." One teacher said, "The chief value of algebra is that through it the boy learns the language of the higher mathematics; he gains a conception of abstractions, of the use of formulæ." "But if he is not to go to college, what does he gain?" "He gains accuracy, he learns that a thing is either right or wrong, he learns that a slight error vitiates the whole process, and thus sees the necessity of continued accuracy. He trains the reasoning power in solving problems." But can he not gain most of this from arithmetic if properly taught in the grammar school? It also develops accuracy, its results are either right

or wrong, and in solving problems, as no memorized formulæ are used, it develops greater power of analysis, greater reasoning power, since without formulæ the analysis is more minute, the reasoning more consecutive.

What have we left? The boy learns the language of higher mathematics, which the average boy will never use; he learns to represent classes of concrete facts by a formula, a valuable training, but for this he requires at the lowest estimate five recitations a week for one year in the average good school. Mr. Farrand, in a recent paper, estimates the time required as five periods a week for two years. The Harvard catalogue says three periods a week for two years. I do not here take into consideration the preparation for technical school, for, with the student preparing for these schools, the study of mathematics is not a matter of general education, but rather of learning to use the tools of his trade. But when the average boy studies algebra he finishes it. It is as a tale that is told; it knoweth him and he it no more. He never uses it for practical ends, it does not enrich his life or suggest to him other fields of knowledge, or enable him to understand nature or man. It is a study of form, and not of content. Its recommendation is that it develops power. Subtract from this power the power that can be gained from the study of arithmetic, and is what is left sufficient to justify a time allowance of five periods a week for one or two years? By introducing some of the algebraic ideas into the grammar school, as is being done, could not all else that is necessary for the boy's training be done in far less time?

I asked the teachers, "What does geometry do for the boy?" They said, "It develops accuracy of expression, gives training in synthetic reasoning, stimulates the imagination, necessitates accuracy, teaches the boy to hold to the mark, to shoot straight." And for this it takes at least five periods a week for one year, and the teachers of geometry are constantly asking for more, because of the increasing use of originals and the extension of mensuration in geometry. As a means of training in synthetic reasoning some hold that nothing excels Euclid, and if geometry were kept to its ancient model, the work could be done, that is, such essentials as are necessary for continuous progress in the subject in three periods a week for

one year. Are then the modern additions to geometry of sufficient educational value to warrant shutting out subjects which train more directly for life, such as economics and civics?

Allow me for an instant to call into question the much lauded disciplinary value of mathematics as a preparation for life. It is a question whether mathematical training, if not accompanied by training in corrective subjects, does not unfit one for life. The reasoning of mathematics is not the reasoning of life. In mathematics your premises are established, they are axiomatic; provided there is no flaw in your reasoning the conclusion is bound to be right. In life you must first establish your premises, and then they are only probable, for in the background of your reasoning is always found lurking, other things being equal, these results will follow. In life we reason that certain things must happen, and we stake our fortunes, our happiness, upon these sureties, only to meet, many times, disaster. Our reasoning is sound, the trouble is with the premises which we accepted without question. These must never be accepted as axiomatic, for they involve those most uncertain elements, human nature and the forces of nature.

Professor Simon Patten points out that among the Greeks geometry had great disciplinary value, because its premises had not yet been established. With them there was the stimulus of discovery. Now that geometry has become a science, with its laws fully formulated; it has little disciplinary, but chiefly utilitarian value. He maintains that a subject has most value for training when it is in process of being transformed from an art into a science. Hence he maintains that the social sciences, which are undergoing that process, afford superior training power to the finished sciences.

I have said that geometric reasoning is not the reasoning of life, economic reasoning is. The problems confronting us in life are largely economic and political. The student of the secondary school who there finishes his school education meets these problems with no preparation for them, and hence he accepts every sort of fallacy. He imbibes the economics and politics of his favorite newspapers. Read his paper and see how many fallacies you can detect in a single issue. Does

your mathematical training help you? Is the trouble more often with the premise or the reasoning? Economics would furnish a superior training in reasoning to mathematics; it demands accuracy of definition, definiteness of statement at every point in the process. It calls forth the exercise of the imagination, since every one of us creates our own economic world. It trains the boy's power of expression equally well with mathematics and has, of course, far greater utilitarian value for the average boy.

One point in conclusion. Many educators are coming to feel that not only is morality the chief aim in education, but that we must definitely make training in morals, the development of a distinct social and civic morality the direct, not the indirect object of our education. We may feel it difficult to subscribe fully to the theory of a lawyer friend of mine, who maintains that most people do wrong because they do not realize that the penalty is sure to follow the offense, and who believes that in the proper kind of education is the prevention of wrongdoing. But we all must acknowledge much of truth in it. Men do wrong largely because of deficiencies in education. The social conscience of our life insurance and senatorial grafters has certainly not been developed.

I asked a mathematical teacher, "To what extent does mathematics develop the moral sense?" He answered, "It develops accuracy, honesty and independence of effort, that arise through the consciousness of achievement." Let this be granted. The study of Latin also does that, and at the same time has great utilitarian value. Our present course of study in the secondary school, with the exception of history, which is slowly fighting its way to a just recognition, contains no course that distinctly trains a man for residence in a political community. I urge, therefore, the further study of history and the introduction of civics and economics as independent subjects, because they more than any other subjects develop this moral, this civic sense which is so greatly needed if we are to have good government and better social conditions in this country. Economics is, it is true, a science based on observation. It formulates into laws the tendencies observed. As a science, you may say, it cannot directly teach morality. As a science it tries to show *what is*, but the subject is so vital

to those who study it that the study of *what is* inevitably suggests the question, "*What ought to be?*" The study of civics is also a systematic treatment of *what is*, but the thorough student of civics is led to compare our political institutions with those of other countries, and out of this arises again the question, *What ought to be?*

I doubt if a teacher of economics and civics in this country can be found who is not seriously considering this question of *what ought to be*, who is not constantly seeking to impress upon his pupils that it is their duty to learn to see clearly, to think clearly, and, above all, to act in accordance with their thinking. He who has been led to see clearly the problems of our modern society cannot fail to realize that no man liveth to himself, that the interest of one is the interest of all, an injury to one is an injury to all. I do not believe that the boy who has thus been trained in the secondary school is nearly so apt to be a well-trained scoundrel as the boy whose training in the school contains no purposely moral elements, a training by which morality is supposed to come as a by-product of developing the intellectual life. Industry, persistence, accuracy, logical reasoning power, punctuality are not qualities monopolized by the good citizen and lover of his kind. They are often possessed by the unfaithful insurance officer or party boss, who sees his opportunity and takes it. These admirable qualities, or at least some of them, the study of mathematics may develop. The qualities which makes the good citizen, not merely the man of trained intelligence, come from the study of man in society.

To return to our thesis, the time allowance for mathematics in our secondary schools is disproportionate because in these days the boy cannot spare five hours a week for two or three years for a purely formal study which does not enrich his after-life, a subject whose disciplinary power is surpassed by that of subjects clamoring for admission to the curriculum, subjects which have a rich content and which, more than any other, train for life in the twentieth century.

DO THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS
IN MATHEMATICS DEMAND A DISPROPOR-
TIONATE AMOUNT OF TIME IN THE
SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

PROFESSOR DAVID EUGENE SMITH, TEACHERS COLLEGE,
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In making up this program it has seemed wise to the committee to adopt the old plan of setting forth a thesis, having it attacked and opening the position to defence. In presenting a paper like that of my friend on the other side of this argument, and in opening it to attack and discussion, the deck is somewhat cleared for action. Such a procedure gives us a point of view; it should give us clearer vision; but, after all, we ought always to bear in mind that the man who is the attorney for the plaintiff is a paid lawyer, and the man who is the attorney for the defendant is also a paid lawyer; and, therefore, it is to be expected that the gentleman who preceded me has presented arguments in which he himself does not fully believe; and it is entirely natural that I, the attorney for the defendant, should bring up points that are perhaps as unbelieved by me. Still, it is due to him and it is due to me to say that I believe we both of us approach this matter honestly. I believe thoroughly that if the burden of responsibility were put upon him to regulate the amount of mathematics in the high schools, he would not lower the amount one iota; and certainly, if the burden were put upon me, I should not increase the amount; so I think we both approach the matter from a standpoint of fairness. At the same time, I must say that I am disappointed in the fact that my antagonist really has dodged the issue somewhat, and, instead of speaking of the college entrance requirements in mathematics, has put before us a discussion of the relative merits of economics and civics and history, and has put upon me the defense of mathematics from the standpoint of educational value instead of from the standpoint of entrance examinations to college. I, therefore, think that I may be allowed to depart somewhat from the line he has laid down and take up one or two arguments that are

commonly advanced and which may be advanced here this morning, and to discuss the question from a somewhat broader standpoint than that of the mere educational value of mathematics as compared with civics and history.

We are confronted at once by the question, What is the meaning of the topic at hand? My friend on the other side of this issue had to meet that and has met it in his own way; I also have to meet it, but shall do so in another manner. The question is, Do the college entrance requirements in mathematics demand a disproportionate amount of time in the secondary school curriculum? The difficulty seems to me to hinge about the word disproportion. What is the basis of reference? If you have a proportion there must be something to which something else is referred; therefore, what do we mean by this disproportionate amount of time? Does it mean that the report of the Tyler Committee of the American Mathematical Society (which report has been adopted by the College Entrance Board and by the Regents of the State of New York) —does it mean that this set of requirements for college increases the time so that it is not in fair proportion to the time that has been allowed in the past? Certainly it cannot mean this, because the report has simplified the entrance requirements so far as elementary algebra is concerned; it has not changed them one iota as to plane geometry; and these are the two topics we have to consider, because almost all our students who take entrance examinations take them in elementary algebra and plane geometry.

Does it mean that the examinations that are being set by the College Entrance Board are too severe? Does it mean that this Board of Examiners is not carrying out the policy that is laid down by those who set forth the standard of requirements? We cannot answer that, because the data are insufficient. The examinations have been running over a period of only five years, and we can hardly tell what the future is going to bring forth, although we can make a kind of an estimate. It is interesting to note that, if we omit the last examinations, 66 per cent of the standings in elementary algebra and plane geometry are above the average. If we include the last year's examinations, which are the most severe that we have had (although I do not think unduly so), more

than half of the records show a standing above the average in all the subjects combined. It cannot, therefore, be said that our examiners are asking questions that are unduly severe. It cannot mean, therefore, that we are demanding a disproportionate amount of time in order to prepare for the examinations.

Does the question mean that the ground of the entrance examinations has generally been increased of late, so that it is greater than it was in the past? Certainly not, because the ground covered in elementary algebra twenty-five years ago, to enter Princeton and Harvard, was more extended than it is to-day, and the examination in plane geometry is practically what it has been for the last twenty-five years. Our friend who follows me to-day in this discussion, in an admirable paper read not long ago, made the assertion that the number of regular propositions in plane geometry has been of late increased, and that, therefore, a disproportionate amount of time must be required. But surely he must have been mistaken in this. Davies's old Legendre had only one hundred and sixty-one propositions in plane geometry, counting the problems which are numbered separately; Euclid had only one hundred and seventy-three, whereas the most popular geometry to-day has only one hundred and sixty-two, less than Euclid, only one more than Davies.

Does it mean that there is a prospective danger of increasing the time? Is that what our friends are complaining of? Surely there is no serious complaint on the part of teachers against the time allowed to prepare for the entrance examination to college. I have known schools and colleges for more than twenty years very intimately, the secondary schools and the colleges as well, and I have never heard any serious complaint as to the questions or the time allowance, either on the part of teachers of mathematics or on the part of students who are preparing for college. The complaint that you hear now and then is merely the bickering of two classes of teachers. We always hear a certain amount of recrimination on the part of the college man against the preparatory and vice versa, a recrimination that disappears on a fair discussion. An example of this occurred not long ago in one of our large Eastern universities. There was a certain amount of talk going back

and forth between this institution and the preparatory schools on the question of mathematics. This college invited the secondary teachers of mathematics in the Eastern States to a discussion of the question of the difficulty of entrance examinations and of the amount of work required in the high schools. The discussion took place, the secondary school men meeting the university authorities and stating their case frankly. The matter was argued at some length, and it was suggested that the secondary school men prepare a set of entrance examinations themselves. This was done, and the examination papers prepared were duplicated and sent around to the secondary schools for discussion. It is needless to say that this ended the whole matter, because the examinations prepared by the secondary schools themselves were harder than the examinations of Harvard University.

Does it mean that we have always demanded a disproportionate extent of mathematics? I judge so from the paper already read; and yet when we come to think that Michigan University has for more than thirty-five years demanded solid geometry as well as plane geometry to enter the classical course, and when the Western colleges generally are doing the same thing (and I think properly), it cannot be said that here in the East, where plane geometry and elementary algebra are practically the sole requirements, we are going beyond a reasonable demand. I did not wish to bring into the discussion a comparison of the German and American schools. We hear that Germany is doing so much more than we are that we are sometimes tempted to wish that Germany would close its schools for a time. But even if we go outside of Germany, say into Austria or Bulgaria, we are equally surprised at the extent of the work done in the secondary schools. Certainly we cannot afford, from the comparative standpoint, to cut down the amount of work, when we require less than so many countries; therefore I am sure that the question cannot mean this.

Does it mean that our students are so well prepared in mathematics when they come to college that there is no objection on the part of the college authorities, and that, therefore, we may cut down our time as disproportionate to what it should be? It is only a few years ago that an inquiry was

made by the Department of Education at Washington concerning the preparation in mathematics of students going into college. Out of one hundred and eleven institutions answering, seventy-six said that the students were not nearly as well prepared in mathematics as they should be; so it is not because the colleges are satisfied that any one suggests that we are demanding a disproportionate amount of time.

Does it mean that we should have less time given now to mathematics than formerly? that since we have cut out a lot of inherited material that got into the arithmetics in the sixteenth century, we ought to slash away at geometry and algebra in the high school? I don't believe so, because, as a matter of fact, we have already cut down in our algebra in the Tyler report. It is said that we have introduced the graph; but, as a matter of fact, how long does it take to teach the little amount that is needed for this topic in elementary algebra? Compare it with the time formerly required for the Euclidean form of greatest common divisor, and with the time for cube root, both of which have been cut out, and you will agree that the net amount has been cut down in our algebra. In the days when we did not have civics; in the days when history had not even got its one foot in the secondary schools; in the days when biology was not known in the high schools, we did have more time for mathematics. It has been cut down until further reduction is absolutely impossible if we are to attain the results that the colleges may reasonably demand. It has been said that algebra and geometry together require the equivalent of ten hours in our secondary schools. I do not know how many hours are required in the secondary schools generally throughout the country; but I know that five hours of recitation are often demanded each day of the week, which would make about twenty-five hours for the entire week, or one hundred week-hours for four years. If mathematics requires ten hours out of the one hundred (one-tenth of the time), I do not think our friends on the other side can say we are asking a very disproportionate amount of time for so important a subject.

Does the question mean that our solid geometry, our higher algebra and our trigonometry are requiring a disproportionate amount of time? As a matter of fact, very few take those

subjects. If any one is disposed to bring up the argument concerning these studies, we should consider that only eighty students out of twenty-one hundred took solid geometry at the last examination; in advanced algebra only eighty-two out of this number, and in trigonometry eighty-six. These subjects surely could not have been very difficult, since 92 5-10 per cent of those trying the solid geometry passed the subject, against 60 9-10 per cent in all other subjects.

So it seems to come down to the claim that the educational value of mathematics is so low that we ought to give up what we have. It has been suggested by my predecessor that the utilitarian value of Latin is so much more than the utilitarian value of mathematics that we should give more time to Latin and less time to mathematics. Surely I need not discuss such a proposition. If it had been put on something different from utilitarian grounds, it might be open to discussion. As a matter of fact, however, the question of educational values is not profitable for debate just at the present time. We are having such a revolution in the concept of the educational values of subjects to-day that it is exceedingly difficult to tell just where the utilities are and where culture value lies. When we come to put our finger on any subject, to determine exactly where is the educational value, we are disappointed. Really, as Mr. Hill said a number of years ago in Massachusetts, it is usually very fortunate that we cannot tell exactly where the educational value does lie. So it is hardly the time, I think, to discuss the broad ground of the educational value of a number of these subjects, and in particular of mathematics. We have seen such a revolution in the teaching of arithmetic within the last ten years, and are liable to see such a revolution in the teaching of algebra and geometry in the next ten, that I do not believe we are prepared to discuss the subject profitably in this connection at the present time.

Fifteen years ago we had a lot of inherited stuff in our arithmetics. There was compound proportion; there was equation of payments; there was alligation, subjects valuable in one way, but giving a false notion of business. There is not a writer on arithmetic to-day who is not seeking to eliminate such matter and to touch the life of the American people in every way that he can. This is making arithmetic not only a culture

subject, but also in the broadest sense a utilitarian subject. The same thing, I think, is coming in our algebra and geometry. Why are you teaching algebra? Is it possible now to touch the life of the American people with that subject as you have touched it with arithmetic? I thoroughly believe it is, and that the next ten or fifteen years is going to see a revolution, not in the abstract work in algebra, but in the applications of algebra. We are seeing it already in the introduction to the subject. See what it is compared to what it was not many years ago. To-day every writer is searching to find the formulas that the artisan uses, that all classes of artisans in the United States meet in their trade journals, and those subjects are getting into the beginning of our algebras. The linear equation to-day is trying to touch our life in subjects like percentage, discount, interest, and so on. Thus we are trying to make this part of algebra touch the life of the American people. How is it with the quadratic equation? I believe the same field exists here, a field that we have not as yet begun to open; but the opportunity is apparent; we see it; but if iconoclasts go to work and cut down our time and cut down our subjects, they are going to cut the life right out of secondary mathematics.

This whole question means that mathematics is asked to give up time in a way sure to break its sequence; and if we break the sequence of mathematics we stop the oiling of the mental machine in such way that the student in the advanced mathematics is not prepared for his work. A subject like this does not admit easily of its sequence being broken. The proposition means a substitution of other work to take up the time that has been given and should be given to mathematics; it means that instead of having sixty experiments in chemistry your pupils in the secondary schools are now asked to have a hundred, and that, instead of asking that a boy show his ability to write and speak good English, the examiners are demanding time to allow for asking where certain characters lived and in what society they moved, for asking for dissertations quite foreign to the vital subject in hand on the teaching of English.

My friend a few moments ago asked that we show the beneficial results of teaching mathematics. We might ask the

same for Latin; we might ask it for Greek; and yet those of us who have ever studied Latin and Greek would not give up our knowledge of these tongues for a great deal more than it cost us. Show us the results of French; how many students could ask a Paris cab driver to take them to the Louvre? Show us the results in chemistry. Let a boy go through a chemical laboratory, and then take him down to Altoona, to the Pennsylvania Railroad shops, and ask him to show results there. He acts as if he never heard of chemistry. The same thing is true of any subject; and if we are asked to cut down our time in mathematics, surely we are not going to show the results any better than we are showing them at the present time.

I think perhaps I have taken up some of the arguments that may be advanced against the present time allowance in mathematics, and certainly my own time allowance has already become so disproportionate that I should close my remarks. There are two or three matters in conclusion, however, to which I would like to call attention. Whatever may be said for or against mathematics, we who are standing for mathematics will agree to this: that the subject is not taught as well as it should be taught; probably it never will be taught as well as it should be, and the same thing is true of every other subject in the curriculum. We never have as good teachers as we want in mathematics, and none of us is as good a teacher as he wishes to be and perhaps should be. The world will always demand better teachers than it has, because otherwise it would not improve the teaching profession. But don't expect to improve matters by cutting down our time; leave us what we have, and let us, in the next ten or fifteen years, work out our own salvation, and we shall not fail to show better results in the teaching of mathematics than have been seen in the past. If you feel that mathematics is a dead science, if you believe that mathematics does not touch humanity, encourage the teacher in his endeavor to make it touch human life. This is not the time to discourage him by abbreviating his curriculum. Eliminate material if you wish from mathematics. I think we should eliminate certain things now required in the entrance requirements for college; but for every subject that is eliminated I would add a subject. I

would be glad to see a number of propositions cut out from plane geometry; but if cut out, I would like to see the elements of plane trigonometry come in. I would be glad, indeed, to have certain parts of algebra cut out, to see a certain amount of the theory of exponents and certain of the more difficult parts of complex fractions go; but when those do go, I should like to see a little of the elements of analytics go in, as they are going in now slightly with the treatment of the graph. I should also like to see a slight introduction to differential calculus in the secondary school. These subjects are easier to teach than much that we are teaching to-day in the secondary schools, and the minute you introduce them you have subjects that can be applied to the life which we live to-day in America. All of this means that if we have some unnecessary mathematics in our requirements, we have other valuable material ready to take its place. It is absolutely essential to maintain our mathematics in three years of the high school if we are to keep the subject fresh in mind and send pupils to college adequately prepared. It is said to-day that our pupils go out of the grammar school unable to add, subtract, multiply or divide; and you will find that, if you will cut down the time devoted to mathematics in the high school, the boy will leave the high school and go to college or go to business unable to think.

DO THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS
IN MATHEMATICS DEMAND A DISPROPOR-
TIONATE AMOUNT OF TIME IN THE
SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

HEADMASTER WILSON FARRAND, OF THE NEWARK ACADEMY.

The fact that I speak without manuscript does not mean that I speak without thought or preparation, and the fact that I have not committed my views to paper does not mean that I do not know what those views are. It simply means that I have a pretty definite end at which I wish to arrive, but was not quite sure of the best way to take to reach that end until I heard this discussion this morning.

When the committee asked me to speak on this subject they told me that they expected to have a paid attorney for the plaintiff, and a paid attorney for the defendant, but that I was to be the just judge, uncorrupt and incorruptible, who was to pronounce the truth upon the subject.

It was an interesting proposition. I had not often spoken at an educational meeting except when I was in a contest, and I thought that it would be interesting simply to listen and to deliver a verdict as to which side had won. I began to study the subject and found that there were several different ways of getting at it. That was when I concluded that it was wiser not to prepare a formal paper. About a week ago I had an intimation from one of the speakers as to the general line of reasoning that he was going to pursue. I saw immediately that I was not going to be as impartial as I thought. Two or three days ago I received a similar intimation from the other speaker, and I saw then that I was going to be still less impartial. After listening to the discussion this morning and hearing these papers, I find that I am in a still more difficult position, because, frankly, I believe that both of these attorneys are wrong. I propose, therefore, to inject a certain new element into the discussion.

I have had some hesitation in these last few moments in deciding what was the best way to arrive at the point for which I am aiming. I have concluded that it is better to divide my subject into two heads: the first, the first speaker; and the second, the second speaker.

The first point that we had presented was the great value of economics and civics as a school study, and it was presented ably and forcibly. A strong plea was made for the utilitarian value of the subject, also for its cultural and disciplinary value, and I do not believe that we are disposed to quarrel with what was said as to the value of economics as a useful subject and as a school study.

When, however, it is said that economics is equal to mathematics—to geometry—as a training in reasoning, then I think that we are, many of us, disposed to question the statement. Possibly there has been too high a value placed upon the reasoning value of mathematics. As the speaker has pointed out, the reasoning that we indulge in in actual life is not the

reasoning of mathematics, from fixed and unassailable premises; but that is not the point: the point is that in our schools we are dealing with growing minds—we are dealing with the minds of boys and girls in the process of development; and at just the stage reached in the secondary school the kind of reasoning that is found in geometry is exactly the gymnastics that is needed to develop in those minds the power of reasoning. They learn to reason definitely, positively; they learn what it means to argue from a premise to a conclusion, far better than they can from such a subject as economics. I am disposed to agree with the gentleman that economics and civics have a place in our school course, and I am willing to grant, even, that they have a right to be counted for admission to college. I can see no serious objection to allowing one unit, as he proposed, of economics and civics to count for admission to college; but, if I understood him aright, the way in which he was trying to make room for the unit was by compressing mathematics. He was going to crowd an already congested subject into a still smaller space in order to make room for a congested course in another subject, and thus still further to congest our already over-congested curriculum. Now there is precisely where I take issue with him. If economics and civics can come into our course as an alternative for something, well and good; but let us have no more scraps of subjects crowded in. I do not mean to speak disrespectfully of economics in calling it a scrap, but do not crowd in more subjects where we have not the room for them. I do not believe that we can make room by still further compressing the mathematics.

Now I pass to the second head; that is, the second speaker—the question of mathematics, its value and importance. Without taking the time to give the figures and to show how we get at the result, I think it a safe estimate to say that the present entrance requirement in mathematics (by which we mean algebra and plane geometry) constitutes from fifteen to twenty per cent of the amount of work required for college. On what is known as the Columbia scale of points those two subjects count as three points out of fifteen, making exactly twenty per cent.; on the Harvard scale they count for somewhat less than that. If we were to take the

testimony of teachers, my judgment is that they would agree that the elementary mathematics now calls for about twenty per cent. of the time taken in preparation for college. Leaving that point for a short time, I now come to a point connected with it, that the last speaker raised—that the college requirements in mathematics remain substantially unchanged and have not been increased. He spoke of the last twenty-five years. I must admit that in this he has me at something of a disadvantage, taking up as he does some words that I used a few weeks ago when I was speaking in a most general way. Now he comes in as a specialist, quotes facts and figures and calls on me without preparation to substantiate my previous statements.

I think that I am able to do it. I ask you to go back with me, a little back of twenty-five years. I wonder how many of you are acquainted with the history of mathematics in this country as a college study, or as a requirement for college. In the early days of Harvard and Yale (I take those as two typical colleges) there was no such thing as an entrance requirement in mathematics. In both Harvard and Yale in the early days of the colleges there was no mathematics until the senior year; and during the first years of Harvard's existence the entire mathematics in college consisted of arithmetic and geometry in the senior year; in Yale it was arithmetic and surveying. It was not until 1787 that arithmetic in Yale was brought down to the freshman year. It was not until 1802 that Harvard established a requirement in mathematics for admission—barely a century ago. The requirement that Harvard then set up in mathematics was arithmetic to the rule of three. You will bear in mind that at that time the rule of three (or proportion) was first studied with reference to integers, and it seems probable, therefore (although I have not been able to verify this), that the arithmetic that was required for Harvard in 1802 did not even include fractions. It was not until 1816 that the higher arithmetic was required for admission to Harvard. It was not until 1819 that even a small amount of algebra was added. That was the first algebra in the country that I have been able to get trace of as an admission requirement—in the year 1819. In 1825 the Harvard catalogue says that the entrance requirement was algebra

to the end of simple equations, including cube root and powers, arithmetical and geometrical progressions. In 1843 an introduction to geometry was added. I have not been able to get hold of the text-book referred to in that subject, but, as nearly as I can get at it, it was a very small amount of geometry that was added, even at that time.

In Yale the first mention of algebra as a college requirement is in the catalogue of 1845 and 1846, and the first geometry requirement of Yale was in 1856 and 1857, when two books of Euclid were added. At a later time they allowed as an alternative for that, three books of Legendre, or Loomis. I recently found some reminiscences of student life at Dartmouth about 1820 or 1830; and Dartmouth, by the way, was one of the colleges laying a great deal of stress in the early days on mathematics. On beginning the study of geometry in college, the first lesson that was assigned was twenty pages in the text-book—the definitions and a number of propositions. The instructor told them that he expected them to read over the theorems, but that they need not read the proofs unless they doubted the truth of them; that for his part he was quite willing to accept the truth of the propositions without question. It was not until 1887—eighteen years ago—that Yale increased its requirement to the whole of plane geometry. That is about the time at which plane geometry—the entire amount of plane geometry—was added, a little less than twenty years ago.

I think I have said enough to establish the fact that mathematics gained an entrance into our schools, so far as college requirements were concerned, only within a hundred years, and that it has gone on steadily increasing down to a time about twenty years ago.

Now, mark the point that the last speaker has raised—that in the last twenty years the requirement has remained substantially unchanged. He has me at something of a disadvantage there. I happen to have in my notes a few of the facts and figures that I want, but not all of them. First, in the matter of algebra, let me give one instance. It does not prove the case, but I think that it will be endorsed by the experience of most teachers of mathematics. About fifteen to eighteen years ago, in a certain school a text-book in algebra

was used, which happened, by the way, to be the same text-book that I myself used when in college. It was used as the sole text-book in that school. At a time, I should think somewhere from twelve to fifteen years ago, it was found necessary to change that text-book because it no longer met the college requirements. Certain new topics had been introduced that were slighted in that book; the college examinations had begun to call for work that was not covered by that text-book, and another text-book by the same author was substituted, which served the purpose fairly well until some five or six years ago, when that in turn was found inadequate, because of the still increasing requirements of the colleges, which were calling for work, and for a kind of work that was not touched in that book; and a third book had to be substituted for it. I am not a mathematical teacher, and I cannot speak from my own experience. It is difficult to produce facts and figures, but I believe that a great majority of those men who have been teaching mathematics in our secondary schools for the past fifteen to twenty years will verify this statement.

When it comes to geometry, I have a few of the facts and figures right here, and yet I am somewhat embarrassed in bringing them up. Reference has been made to Davies' Legendre as a text-book. That was a standard text-book at about the time when all of plane geometry was added as a requirement. I think that Dr. Smith gave the number of propositions in Davies' Legendre as something like one hundred and sixty. Now, I am not a mathematician, but I thought that I was able to count and to add up the figures in five books of Davies' Legendre; and my count of those propositions, made within a week in anticipation of this meeting, made it one hundred and ten. I cannot see where there were any one hundred and sixty propositions, unless they were included in the supplemental propositions that were added in an appendix. I do not want to dispute Professor Smith's figures, but I think that I am right in the statement that there were one hundred and ten propositions in that book. Chauvenet—the original Chauvenet—contained even fewer propositions than that. I have recently examined three text-books of modern geometry, picking out three of the books that are in most common use in our schools. Without naming them, one contained one

hundred and sixty-seven propositions, another one hundred and sixty-eight and the third one hundred and seventy-four. As nearly as I can get at the facts, there were only about one hundred book propositions required at the time plane geometry was adopted, twenty years ago; there are now somewhere in the neighborhood of one hundred and seventy propositions required. In other words, there has been a distinct increase of from fifty to seventy-five per cent. in the number of book propositions required. The old propositions were those that might be called the elements of geometry—those that were essential to the logical development of the subject. Harvard has published a syllabus containing those propositions that they consider essential. It includes only ninety-four propositions—that is all. The others, a friend of mine who is a mathematician says, are largely of the nature of geometrical curiosities—very valuable, interesting and good, but not essential. In addition to this enlargement of book work during the last twenty years, the amount of original work called for has been increased from nothing to something that is very severe. The point that I make (and this I think an absolutely safe assertion) is that in the last twenty years the requirement in geometry has practically doubled and the requirement in algebra has increased very materially.

Now we come to the original question as stated on the program. As the discussion stands at present, it resolves itself into a double question. The first part of the question is, Is twenty per cent. of the time given in our schools to preparation for college too much to devote to mathematics? The second part of the question is, Is the amount of work now called for by college requirements in mathematics too great to be done in that twenty per cent. of time?

I believe that twenty per cent. of the entire time is not too great an amount to give to mathematics. I believe that the importance of the subject justifies that allotment. It is important because of its development in the pupil of skill in calculation, which is one of the most valuable powers that a man can have to-day in the business world, in the development of accuracy, in the development of reasoning power, and in the development of the power of using the English language accurately and specifically. Last night we heard of the great

value of translation from the classics in developing power in the use of English. I am impelled to place side by side with that the value of training in mathematics, when the subject is properly taught, as an aid to the correct, definite and specific use of English. My time is almost gone, and I cannot enlarge upon that point; but I firmly believe that the value of mathematics, whether considered from the utilitarian standpoint or from the disciplinary standpoint, is sufficiently great to warrant the allotment of twenty per cent. of the entire amount of work required for admission to college.

Then comes the second question: Is the amount of work which is now called for, capable of being done properly in that time? and here is where I take square issue with the last speaker. I agree with him in saying, do not cut off one minute of the time given to mathematics; that is, of the proportionate time given to mathematics. I especially say, do not lop off a piece of mathematics in order to crowd something else into the space; but when he says, do not reduce the time, but cut off a few propositions of geometry in order to make room for a little trigonometry, or for a little calculus, then I take absolutely square issue with him. The point I want to make is this: We are now so hurried in our teaching of mathematics (as we are in the teaching of almost every other subject in our schools) that we are not getting the proper results. We have heard of the lack of accuracy in calculation. I believe that this comes largely from the fact that in our teaching of algebra we crowd our pupils so hard, we rush them over such an enormous amount of work in such a little time, that we have not the chance to give them the necessary drill; and I know of nothing that will give that accuracy, that certainty, that facility in calculation, like constant, steady drill. In the same way in our geometry, we are doing so much, taking so much time on these book propositions which are not really essential to the development of the whole subject, that we cannot properly develop the original power in the mind of the student. Give us just as large a proportion of time as we now have; but instead of making room for something else and continuing the quantity of work that we now have, cut off, if you please, some of these subjects that have been added in algebra; cut off some of those propositions that have been

added in geometry. Let us have the same amount of time to do that smaller amount of work, and we will send into college students better fitted to go on with their mathematical work, better fitted to think, better able to do good work in the future in all subjects.

This brings me to my conclusion. Economics, I believe, has a place in our schools, if we can supply a unit of economics and can let it stand as an alternative to some other subject; but it has no place if it has to be crowded into a little time stolen from already overcrowded subjects. Mathematics is of sufficient importance to claim a large share of the time now given to the work of preparation for the college. The amount of time given to mathematics is not disproportionate to the amount of time allowed for the whole work of college preparation; but the total quantity of work in all subjects now demanded for college entrance is too great. The time given to mathematics is not too great, but the quantity of work to be done in that time is too great. The ground to be covered is disproportionate to the time allowed.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

PROFESSOR EDWIN S. CRAWLEY, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.—I wish to emphasize, in a very few words, some of the points bearing on this subject.

In the first place, to reduce the amount of time which is given to the study of mathematics in preparation for college, it seems to me would be a great pedagogical error. Most of the secondary schools have two or more curricula, one of which is designed especially for college preparation; and it is to this one that the discussion this morning is particularly directed. Such a curriculum is limited to the establishment of a good foundation upon which to erect the structure of the college course, and differs widely from that of the student whose school career ends with the secondary school.

Admission to most colleges requires a very large proportion of language study, a little history, sometimes a little science (which is often, if not generally, optional), and some mathematics. Mathematics does not form a large proportion

of the whole, nor a proportion which the best interests of the students would permit of reduction. The student needs those elements in his preliminary training which the study of mathematics gives, and needs them frequently in much larger measure than he receives them, or at least than he appropriates them, so far as I am able to judge from many of the results which I see. The habit of careful and accurate reasoning, precision in expressing one's ideas, neatness and accuracy in written work, and, by no means least, persistence in searching for the hidden error, when the work is wrong, to all of which the study of mathematics contributes at least as much as any other study, are advantages not lightly to be cast aside. It would seem, therefore, to be a great pedagogical error to assign to a study of such distinct educational value less time than is now given to it.

Reference has been made to the address of Mr. Farrand before the Schoolmasters' Association in New York, on November 11, upon a subject closely allied to the one we are discussing this morning. I was able to learn from this paper (which I read with great pleasure) some of the specific objections to the requirements in mathematics as they exist in some colleges. One of these was the requirement of logarithms, permutations and combinations in algebra. Another was the too free use of originals in the examinations in geometry, and possibly to the introduction of questions in mensuration.

Upon the first question—that of algebra—I am heartily in accord with those who would not extend the work in algebra for preparation to college beyond the solution of quadratic equations and the study of arithmetical and geometrical progressions. I think that the College Entrance Examination Board has done a wise thing in excluding the other topics mentioned from its examination in elementary algebra. I do not believe it makes so much difference whether we teach this topic or that, or whether we omit this topic or that; but I think it does make a very great deal of difference whether the students are taught to approach each topic in algebra as a separate thing, or whether they are shown that the same principles cover the whole field and apply with the same force to the theory of logarithms or the theory of quadratic equation as to any other part of the subject; and if they are thoroughly

grounded in the principles it seems to me that the addition or the omission of one or more topics is comparatively an unimportant matter.

I would urge, also, in geometry the importance of more careful inculcation in the principles of geometrical reasoning and of a vivid realization of the fact brought out by the study of geometry. Every student who has gained anything at all from the study of geometry should have some readiness in proving simple originals and he should certainly be able to apply what he has learned to problems in mensuration. I would urge upon college examiners, however, the importance of not setting too many originals in the entrance papers.

By making moderate demands in the quantity, and maintaining a high standard in the quality of the mathematics required for admission to college, I believe that the best results can be obtained for the colleges, for the schools, and, above all, and this is the main thing, for the students. But this result cannot be obtained by reducing the time devoted to mathematics in the schools.

PROFESSOR CHARLES DE GARMO, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.—There are one or two points I would like to call attention to. The discussion has ranged over a wide field.

I have been comparing, for instance, during the last hour, my own training in mathematics with that of my son who has just gone through a modern high school and has entered the university. I took three months on plane geometry, five hours a week; and he took a whole year on plane geometry; I spent twelve weeks on solid geometry; he took six months; I studied my advanced algebra by myself; he studied it for a year in the high school. I took my trigonometry in six weeks and he took his in six months.

It is only fair to say that this boy was preparing for a technological college; but I don't see why that is not a part of our problem. Those boys are in the high school just the same as the others; they are not going to devote themselves in the future to the humanities, and the humanities are squeezed out of their curriculum during their high school days. This boy spent just about thirty-three per cent. of his time in the high school upon mathematics. The work was so arduous

REPORT OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE.

Chairman Truman J. Backus reported as follows for this committee:

For the officers of the Association for the year 1905-6 we suggest these gentlemen:

President, Principal William W. Birdsall, Girls' High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Vice-Presidents, Principal James M. Green, State Model School, Trenton, N. J.; President Joseph Swain, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.; Principal John G. Wight, Wadleigh High School, New York City; Dean John B. VanMeter, Woman's College, Baltimore, Md.; President George A. Harter, Delaware College, Newark, Del.

Secretary, Professor Arthur H. Quinn, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Treasurer, Professor John B. Kieffer, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.

Executive Committee (President, Secretary and Treasurer, ex-officio), President Rush Rhees, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.; President Thomas Fell, St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.; Dr. Edward J. Goodwin, University of the State of New York, Albany, N. Y.; Dr. James G. Croswell, Headmaster of the Brearley School, New York City.

The Secretary was, on motion, instructed to cast a ballot in the name of the Association for the above-named officers, and they were accordingly declared elected.

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The Executive Committee reported, through the Secretary, that the Proceedings of the Association are now printed by a private firm, the change having been due to the delay in printing the Proceedings as a bulletin of the Board of Regents at Albany, N. Y.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON UNIFORM ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN ENGLISH.

Professor Francis Hovey Stoddard made the following report for the Committee:

The Committee would report that a Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English met at Teachers' College,

Columbia University, New York City, on Wednesday, February 22d, 1905. Regularly accredited delegates from the four principal associations of the United States were present, as follows:

From the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools: Professor Mary A. Jordan, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Principal H. G. Buehler, Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Conn.; Principal William T. Peck, Classical High School, Providence, R. I.

From the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland: Professor Francis Hovey Stoddard, New York University, New York City (chairman); Principal Wilson Farrand, Newark Academy, Newark, N. J. (secretary); Professor Franklin T. Baker, Teachers' College, New York City.

From the North Central Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools: Professor Fred N. Scott, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Professor Martin W. Sampson, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.; Professor George R. Carpenter, Columbia University, New York City, *proxy for* Principal C. W. French, Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Ill.

From the Southern Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools: Professor C. W. Kent, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.; Professor W. P. Trent, Columbia University, New York City; Professor J. B. Henneman, University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn.

The Conference voted that the following requirement for the years 1909, 1910 and 1911 should be recommended to the constituent bodies for adoption.

NOTE.—No candidate will be accepted in English whose work is notably defective in point of spelling, punctuation, idiom, or division into paragraphs.

a. READING AND PRACTICE.—A certain number of books will be recommended for reading, ten of which, selected as prescribed below, are to be offered for examination. The form of examination will usually be the writing of a paragraph or two on each of several topics, to be chosen by the candidate from a considerable number—perhaps ten or fifteen—set before him in the examination paper. The treatment of these topics is designed to test the candidate's power of clear and accurate

expression, and will call for only a general knowledge of the substance of the books. In every case knowledge of the book will be regarded as less important than the ability to write good English. In place of a part or the whole of this test, the candidate may present an exercise book, properly certified to by his instructor, containing compositions or other written work done in connection with the reading of the books. In preparation for this part of the requirement, it is important that the candidate shall have been instructed in the fundamental principles of rhetoric.

1909, 1910, 1911:

Group I (two to be selected).

Shakespeare's As You Like It, Henry V, Julius Cæsar, The Merchant of Venice, Twelfth Night.

Group II (one to be selected).

Bacon's Essays; Bunyan's The Pilgrim's Progress, Part I; The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers in the Spectator; Franklin's Autobiography.

Group III (one to be selected).

Chaucer's Prologue; Spenser's Faerie Queene (selections); Pope's The Rape of the Lock; Goldsmith's The Deserted Village; Palgrave's Golden Treasury (First Series) Books II and III., with especial attention to Dryden, Collins, Gray, Cowper and Burns.

Group IV (two to be selected).

Goldsmith's The Vicar of Wakefield; Scott's Ivanhoe; Scott's Quentin Durward; Hawthorne's The House of the Seven Gables; Thackeray's Henry Esmond; Mrs. Gaskell's Cranford; Dickens' A Tale of Two Cities; George Eliot's Silas Marner; Blackmore's Lorna Doone.

Group V (two to be selected).

Irving's Sketch Book; Lamb's Essays of Elia; De Quincey's Joan of Arc and The English Mail Coach; Carlyle's Heroes and Hero Worship; Emerson's Essays (selected); Ruskin's Sesame and Lilies.

Group VI (two to be selected).

Coleridge's The Ancient Mariner; Scott's The Lady of the Lake; Byron's Mazeppa and The Prisoner of Chillon; Palgrave's Golden Treasury (First Series), Book IV, with especial attention to Wordsworth, Keats and Shelley; Ma-

caulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*; Poe's *Poems*; Lowell's *The Vision of Sir Launfal*; Arnold's *Sohrab and Rustum*; Longfellow's *The Courtship of Miles Standish*; Tennyson's *Gareth and Lynette, Lancelot and Elaine*, and *The Passing of Arthur*; Browning's *Cavalier Tunes, The Lost Leader, How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix, Evelyn Hope, Home Thoughts from Abroad, Home Thoughts from the Sea, Incident of the French Camp, The Boy and the Angel, One Word More, Hervé Riel, Pheidippides*.

b. STUDY AND PRACTICE.—This part of the examination presupposes the thorough study of each of the works named below. The examination will be upon subject-matter, form and structure. In addition, the candidate may be required to answer questions involving the essentials of English grammar, and questions on the leading facts in those periods of English literary history to which the prescribed works belong.

The books set for this part of the examination will be:

1909, 1910, 1911: Shakespeare's *Macbeth*; Milton's *Lycidas, Comus, L'Allegro, and Il Penseroso*; Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America*, or Washington's *Farewell Address* and Webster's *First Bunker Hill Oration*; Macaulay's *Life of Johnson*, or Carlyle's *Essay on Burns*.

The Conference voted that a committee of four, consisting of Professor Stoddard, Professor Scott, Professor Trent and Mr. Peck, should be appointed to consider the advisability of adding selections from the Bible to the requirement, to consult with leading educators on the subject, and to report to the next Conference.

The Conference voted that the attention of the constituent bodies be called to the fact that measures should be taken to provide for a meeting of the Conference on February 22, 1908, to insure concerted action with regard to uniform entrance requirements in English for 1912 and the years immediately following.

Your committee would recommend that the action of the Conference be accepted and adopted by this Association.

FRANCIS HOVEY STODDARD,
WILSON FARRAND,
FRANKLIN T. BAKER.

On motion, the report of the Committee was accepted.

THE PRESIDENT.—The Committee submits a recommendation, namely, that this Association appoint a committee to represent the Association at the next conference, which is to meet in February of 1908.

On motion, the recommendation was adopted.

THE PRESIDENT.—Next in order will be the appointment of this committee.

DR. BACKUS.—I move that the present committee, which has done so much work to elaborate this present plan, be appointed to succeed itself.

THE PRESIDENT.—It has been moved that the present committee be reappointed for the Conference, to serve in 1908.

The motion was seconded and carried.

THE PRESIDENT.—The appointment is so made.

The President appointed as representatives of the secondary schools on the College Entrance Examination Board: Messrs. J. G. Croswell, of New York; Wilson Farrand, of Newark; J. L. Patterson, of Philadelphia; Julius Sachs, of New York, and Randall Spaulding, of Montclair.

NEW BUSINESS.

THE PRESIDENT.—The National Association of State Universities, which, as I understand, includes also the land-grant colleges, at a meeting held in Washington recently made a request of this Association, which request will be read by the Secretary.

THE SECRETARY.—This is a communication addressed to the President of this Association.

November 20, 1905.

National Association of State Universities.

President RUSH RHEES:

University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.

DEAR SIR: At the meeting of the National Association of State Universities, held in Washington, November 13 and 14, the inclosed resolution was passed, which explains itself.

I have no doubt its purport will commend itself to you at once. I write you at the suggestion of President Nicholas Murray Butler, to ask that you will see that either a similar

resolution is passed in the Association of the Middle States and Maryland, or that this resolution, being fully explained, a delegate be properly appointed. I hope that a delegate from each of the Associations named may be appointed, so that some time next year there may be a meeting.

Hoping to hear from you immediately after the meeting in Annapolis, I am,

Yours very truly,

GEORGE E. FELLOWS, *Secretary.*

This is the resolution which was passed, apparently, at this meeting:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the National Association of State Universities be authorized to seek for the appointment of a joint committee consisting of at least one delegate from each of the following organizations:

The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the College Entrance Examination Board.

The said joint committee to present a plan for interrelating the work of these respective organizations in establishing, preserving and interpreting in common terms standards of admission to college, whatever be the method or combination of methods of examination, in order to accommodate migrating students and to secure just understanding and administration of standards.

Voted, Washington, D. C., November 13, 1905.

THE PRESIDENT.—You have heard the communication from the Association of State Universities, asking us to appoint a delegate to meet with that association at some time next year for the purpose indicated. What will you do with that recommendation?

DR. BACKUS.—This should be a matter very deliberately considered. I move that it be referred to the consideration and power of the next Executive Committee.

THE PRESIDENT.—I think the Association of State Univer-

sities would be glad to have us register our approval of the plan of the conference, if this Association approves of that plan.

DR. BACKUS.—I move you that this Association heartily approves the plan herewith submitted, and that it empowers the Executive Committee to appoint such delegate.

The motion was carried.

DR. THOMPSON H. LANDON.—I move that we desire to express our grateful appreciation of the characteristic Maryland hospitality we have received from the authorities, including especially the President of St. John's College; also our equal appreciation of the honor done to the Association by the reception given us by the Governor of the State.

THE PRESIDENT.—You have heard the motion of Dr. Landon. Is it seconded?

PRINCIPAL WILLIAM W. BIRDSALL.—In seconding that motion, I would like to say I trust no harm will come to the President of St. John's College in consequence of bringing this Association to Annapolis. It came to my ears this morning that residents of this peaceful and hospitable city were expressing concern that it is growing entirely too lively a center of frivolity and amusement and losing its characteristic quality of repose; and if President Fell should find his peace and happiness disturbed in consequence of his act in bringing this Association here, it would be to me a matter of very great sorrow and regret. I second the motion with that remark.

THE PRESIDENT.—You have heard the motion with its second and its note of appreciation of the hilarity of the Association. Is anything to be said? Before taking the vote on it, I should take it for granted that all of us who are here will assume a certain amount of vicarious responsibility and make our response so trebly hearty that we can truly represent those who have been called away from this business meeting of the Association. As many as are in favor of the resolution presented by Dr. Landon and seconded by Dr. Birdsall will please signify by rising.

The resolution was carried by a rising vote, and the meeting adjourned.

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION 1904-1905.

President

President RUSH RHEES, Rochester University, Rochester,
N. Y.

Vice-Presidents

President JAMES D. MOFFATT, Washington and Jefferson Col-
lege, Washington, Pa.

Dr. S. A. FARRAND, Headmaster of the Newark Academy,
Newark, N. J.

President THOMAS FELL, St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.
Principal CHARLES D. LARKINS, Manual Training High
School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Dr. WILLIAM H. KLAPP, Headmaster of the Episcopal Acad-
emy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Secretary

Professor ARTHUR HOBSON QUINN, University of Pennsyl-
vania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Treasurer

Professor JOHN B. KIEFFER, Franklin and Marshall College,
Lancaster, Pa.

Executive Committee

President, Secretary and Treasurer, ex-officio.

Dr. TRUMAN J. BACKUS, Packer Collegiate Institute, Brook-
lyn, N. Y.

President AUSTIN SCOTT, Rutgers College, New Brunswick,
N. J.

Professor HERMAN V. AMES, University of Pennsylvania,
Philadelphia, Pa.

Dr. JAMES SULLIVAN, High School of Commerce, New York
City.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR 1905

Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Princeton University, November 25th and 26th, 1904.

Address of welcome by President Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton University.

Response by Dr. Truman J. Backus, Packer Collegiate Institute, President of the Association.

The Modern Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges: Principal Julius Sachs, Dr. Sachs's School for Girls, New York City; Dean Thomas F. Crane, Cornell University; Professor Williamson U. Vreeland, Princeton University.

Discussion: President Thomas Fell, St. John's College, Annapolis, Md.; Dr. Virgil Prettyman, Principal of the Horace Mann High School, New York City; Dr. James G. Croswell, Principal of the Brearley New York City; Mr. James G. Croswell, Principal of the Brearley School, New York City; Mr. R. H. Whitbeck, Supervisor New Jersey State Model Schools, Trenton, N. J.; Mr. William W. Birdsall, Principal of the Girls' High School, Philadelphia; Mr. Randall Spaulding, Superintendent of Public Schools, Montclair, N. J.; Professor Calvin Thomas, Columbia University.

Is the Payment of Tuition in the Free State University a Just Charge on the Public Treasury? President John H. Finley, College of the City of New York; Professor John L. Stewart, Lehigh University.

Discussion: Dr. James M. Green, Principal State Normal and Model Schools, Trenton, N. J.

The Public Function of the Public School: Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, Executive Secretary of the Southern Education Board.

The Simplification of the Secondary School Curriculum: Professor Martin G. Brumbaugh, University of Pennsylvania; Miss Louise H. Haesler, Philadelphia High School for Girls; Dr. James G. Croswell, Principal of the Brearley School, New York City.

Discussion: Professor Andrew F. West, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.; President Joseph Swain, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.; President Ethelbert D. Warfield, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; Mr. W. W. Birdsall, Principal of the Girls' High School, Philadelphia.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1905-6

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Albany, N. Y.	St. Agnes School	Catharine Regina Seabury.
Albany, N. Y.	Univ. of the State of N. Y....	H. H. Horner, Secretary to the Commissioner.
Alfred, N. Y.	Alfred University	Bootho C. Davis, Ph.D.
Allegheny, Pa.	Allegheny Preparatory School.	James Winne, M.A.
Allegheny, Pa.	Western University of Pa.	John A. Brashear, D.Sc., LL.D.
Allentown, Pa.	Muhlenberg College	Rev. John A. W. Haas, D.D.
Annandale, N. Y.	St. Stephen's College	Rev. Thomas R. Harris, D.D.
Annapolis, Md.	St. John's College	Thomas Fell, Ph.D., LL.D.
Annville, Pa.	Lebanon Valley College	Rev. Hervin U. Roop, M.A., Ph.D.
Asbury Park, N. J.	Asbury Park High School	Frederick S. Shepherd, Ph.D.
Aurora, N. Y.	Wells College	Rev. Geo. Morgan Ward, M.A., D.D.
Baltimore, Md. (714 St. Paul St.)....	Arundell School for Girls	Elizabeth Maxwell Carroll, B.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Baltimore City College	Francis A. Soper, M.A.
Baltimore, Md. (311 Courtland St.)	Baltimore Polytechnic Institute.	William R. King, U.S.N.
Baltimore, Md. (Cathedral and Pres-ton Sts.)	Bryn Mawr School	Edith Hamilton, M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	(The) Country School	S. Wardwell Kinney, B.A., M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Friends' School	E. C. Wilson, B.S.
Baltimore, Md. (24th and St. Paul's Sts.)	Girls' Latin School	Harlan Updegraff, M.A.
Baltimore, Md.	Johns Hopkins University	Ira Remsen, M.D., Ph.D., LL.D.
Baltimore, Md.	Maryland State Normal School	George Washington Ward, Ph.D.
Baltimore, Md.	Woman's College	J. F. Goucher, LL.D.
Bayonne, N. J.	Bayonne City High School ...	P. H. Smith, Ph.B.
Beaver, Pa.	Beaver Coll. and Mus. Inst.	Rev. Arthur Staples, M.A., B.D.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Bethlehem Preparatory School.	H. A. Foering, B.S.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Moravian Parochial School ...	Albert G. Rau, M.S.
Bethlehem, Pa.	Moravian Seminary	J. Max Hark, D.D. { Miss N. J. Davis. James G. Miller.
Birmingham, Pa.	Birmingham School	
Blairstown, N. J.	Blair Presbyterian Academy...	John C. Sharpe.
Blairsville, Pa.	Blairsville College	Rev. S. B. Linhart.
Bordentown, N. J.	Bordentown Military Inst.	Rev. Thompson H. Landon, M.A.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (Clif-ton Pl., St. James Pl. and Lafayette Av.)	Adelphi College	Charles H. Levermore, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (183 Lincoln Pl.)	Berkeley Institute	Julian W. Abernethy, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Boys' High School	John Mickleborough, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (Drigg's Av. and S. 3d St.)	Eastern District High School.	William T. Vlymen, A.M., Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Erasmus Hall High School ...	W. B. Gunnison.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Girls' High School	W. L. Felter, Ph.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Manual Training High School.	Charles D. Larkins, Ph.B.
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Packer Institute	Truman J. Backus, LL.D.
Brooklyn, N. Y. (99 Livingston St.) ...	Polytechnic Prep. School	Francis Ransom Lane.
Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Bryn Mawr College	Miss M. Carey Thomas, Ph.D., LL.D.
Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Miss Baldwin's School	Florence Baldwin, Ph.B.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Canisius College	Aloysius Pfeil.
Burlington, N. J.	St. Mary's Hall	John Fearnley, M.A.
Canandaigua, N. Y.	Granger Place School	Samuel C. Fairley.
Canton, N. Y.	St. Lawrence University	Almon Gunnison, D.D., LL.D.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1905-06 (CONTINUED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Carlisle, Pa.	Dickinson College	George Edward Reed, D.D., LL.D.
Chambersburg, Pa.	Chambersburg Academy	D. Edgar Rice, M.A.
Chambersburg, Pa.	Wilson College	M. H. Reaser, Ph.D.
Chester, Pa.	Chester High School	T. S. Cole, M.A.
Chestertown, Md.	Washington College	James W. Cain, LL.D.
Chestnut Hill, Pa.	Chestnut Hill Academy	James L. Patterson.
Clinton, N. Y.	Hamilton College	M. Woolsey Stryker, D.D., LL.D.
Collegeville, Pa.	Ursinus College	Rev. David W. Ebbert, A.M., D.D.
Columbia, Pa.	Columbia High School.....	Mary Y. Welsh.
Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.	The Mackenzie School	Rev. James C. Mackenzie, Ph. D.
East Orange, N. J.	East Orange High School	Charles W. Evans.
Easton, Pa.	Easton High School	B. F. Sandt.
Easton, Pa.	Lafayette College	Etheibert D. Warfield, LL.D.
Elizabeth, N. J.	Pingry School	W. R. Marsh, B.A.
Frederick, Md.	Woman's College	Joseph H. Apple, M.A.
Garden City, L. I.	St. Paul's School	Frederick L. Gamage, M.A.
Geneva, N. Y.	Hobart College	Rev. Langdon C. Stewardson, LL.D.
George School, Pa.	George School	J. S. Walton, Ph.D.
Georgetown, D. C.	Georgetown College	Father J. D. Whitney.
Germantown, Pa. (Coulter St.)	Friends' School	Davis H. Forsythe.
Germantown, Pa.	Germantown Academy	William Kershaw, Ph.D.
Hagerstown, Md.	Kee Mar College	J. Emory Shaw.
Hamilton, N. Y.	Colgate Academy.....	Frank L. Shephardson, M.A.
Hamilton, N. Y.	Colgate University	George E. Merrill, D.D., LL.D.
Haverford, Pa.	Haverford College	Isaac Sharpless, D.Sc., LL.D.
Haverford, Pa.	Haverford School	Charles S. Crossman, B.A., LL.B.
Hightstown, N. J.	Peddie Institute	Roger W. Swetland, B.A.
Ithaca, N. Y.	Cornell University	J. G. Schurman, M.A., D.Sc., LL.D.
Kingston, Pa.	Wyoming Seminary	Rev. L. L. Sprague, M.A., D.D.
Lancaster, Pa.	Franklin and Marshall College.	John S. Stahr, Ph.D., D.D.
Lancaster, Pa.	Miss Stahr's School	Alice H. Byrne.
Lancaster, Pa.	Yeates Institute	Rev. Frederick Gardiner.
Lawrenceville, N. J.	Lawrenceville School	S. J. McPherson, Ph.D.
Lewisburg, Pa.	Bucknell University	John H. Harris, D.D.
Lititz, Pa.	Linden Hall Seminary	Rev. Charles D. Kreider, B.A.
McDonogh, Md.	McDonogh School	Sidney T. Moreland.
Meadville, Pa.	Allegheny College	William H. Crawford, D.D.
Mercersburg, Pa.	Mercersburg Academy	William Man Irvine, Ph.D.
Mohegan, N. Y.	Mohegan Lake School	{ Henry Waters, M.A., Albert E. Linder, M.A.
Montclair, N. J.	Montclair Military Academy.	John G. Mac Vicar.
Montclair, N. J.	Montclair Public School	Randall Spaulding, B.A.
Morristown, N. J.	Morristown School	Francis C. Woodman.
Myerstown, Pa.	Albright College	James D. Woodring, M.A., D.D.
New Brighton, N. Y.	Staten Island Academy	Frederick E. Partington, M.A.
New Brunswick, N. J.	Rutgers College	Austin Scott, Ph.D., LL.D.
New Brunswick, N. J.	Rutgers Preparatory Academy.	Eliot R. Payson, Ph.D.
New York City (721 St. Nicholas Av.)	Barnard School for Boys	Wm. Livingston Hazen, B. A., LL.B.
New York City (17 W. 44th St.)	Brearley School	J. G. Croswell, B.A.
New York City (721 Madison Av.)	Chapin Collegiate School	Henry B. Chapin, Ph.D., D.D.
New York City	College of the City of New York	John M. Finley, Ph. D., LL. D.
New York City (30 W. 16th St.)	College of St. Francis Xavier.	Rev. D. W. Hearn, S.J.
New York City (241 W. 77th St.)	Collegiate School	L. C. Mygatt, M.A., L.H.D.
New York City (34 and 36 E. 51st St.)	Columbia Grammar School ...	Benjamin Howell Campbell, M.A.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1905-06 (CONTINUED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
New York City	Columbia University	Nicholas Murray Butler, Ph.D., LL.D.
New York City (20 E. 50th St.).....	Cutler School	A. H. Cutler, B.A., Ph.D.
New York City (102d St., near Amster- dam Ave.)	De Witt Clinton High School.	John T. Buchanan, M.A.
New York City (116 W. 59th St.)	Dr. J. Sachs' School for Girls	Julius Sachs, B.A., Ph.D.
New York City (226 E. 16th St.)	Friends' Seminary	Edward B. Rawson, B.S.
New York City (35 W. 84th St.)	Irving School	Louis Dwight Ray, M.A., Ph.D.
New York City (65 E. 83d St.)	Loyola School	Rev. J. Harding Fisher, S. J.
New York City (Grand Boulevard and 131st St.)	Manhattan College	Brother Jerome.
New York City (340 W. 86th St.)	Misses Ely's School	Elizabeth L. Ely.
New York City (176 W. 75th St.)	Misses Rayson's School	Amy Rayson.
New York City (Bos- ton Road and 166th St.)	Morris High School	Edward J. Goodwin, Lit.D.
New York City (Park Av. and 68th St.)	Normal College	Thomas Hunter, Ph.D.
New York City	New York University	Henry M. MacCracken, D.D., LL.D.
New York City (38 W. 59th St.)	Sachs' Collegiate Institute	Otto Koenig, J.U.D.
New York City (114th St. and 7th Av.) ..	Wadleigh High School	John G. Wight, Ph.D.
Newark, Del.	Delaware College	George A. Harter, M.A., Ph.D.
Newark, N. J.	Newark Academy	{ S. A. Farrand, Ph.D. { Wilson Farrand.
Newark, N. J.	Newark Public High School..	W. E. Stearns, M.A.
Ocean Grove, N. J. ..	Neptune Township High School	L. A. Doren.
Ogontz, Pa.	Cheltenham Academy	Arthur T. Emory, B.A.
Orange, N. J.	Dearborn-Morgan School	David A. Kennedy, Ph.D.
Ossining, N. Y.	Dr. Holbrook's School	Dwight Holbrook, Ph.D.
Ossining, N. Y.	Mt. Pleasant Academy	C. F. Brusie, M.A.
Paterson, N. J.	Paterson High School	J. A. Reinhart.
Pennsburg, Pa.	Perkiomen Seminary	Rev. O. S. Kriebel, M.A.
Philadelphia (2011 De Lancey Pl.) ...	(The) Agnes Irwin School ...	Sophy Dallas Irwin.
Philadelphia, (Broad and Green Sts.)....	Central High School	Robert Ellis Thompson, Ph.D., D.D.
Philadelphia (17th and Wood Sts.)....	Central Manual Training High School	William L. Sayre, A.M.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Drexel Institute of Art, Science and Industry	James MacAlister, LL.D.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Episcopal Academy	William H. Klapp, M.A., M.D.
Philadelphia (15th and Race Sts.)	Friends' Central High School.	{ Boys' Dep't., J. Eugene Baker. { Girls' Dep't., Anna W. Speakman.
Philadelphia (140 N. 16th St.)	Friends' Select School	J. Henry Bartlett.
Philadelphia (Broad and Green Sts.)....	Girls' Commercial High School	Emily L. Graham.
Philadelphia (17th and Spring Garden Sts.)	Girls' High School	W. W. Birdsall.
Philadelphia (2011 De Lancey Pl.) ...	Miss Agnes Irwin's School ...	Agnes Irwin.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1905-06 (CONCLUDED)

LOCATION.	INSTITUTION.	HEAD OF INSTITUTION.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Northeast Manual Training School	Andrew J. Morrison, Ph.D.
Philadelphia (1720 Arch St.)	Philadelphia Collegiate Institute for Girls	Susan C. Lodge.
Philadelphia (13th and Spring Garden Sts.)	Philadelphia Normal School for Girls	J. Monroe Willard.
Philadelphia, Pa.	Temple College	Rev. R. H. Conwell.
Philadelphia, Pa.	University of Pennsylvania	Charles C. Harrison, LL.D.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	Alinda Preparatory School	Ella Gordon Stuart.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	Central High School	Charles B. Wood, M.A.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	Shady Side Academy	W. R. Crabbe, Ph.D.
Pittsburgh, Pa. (Shady Av.)	Thurston Preparatory School	Alice M. Thurston.
Plainfield, N. J.	Stillman High School	I. W. Travell.
Port Deposit, Md.	Tome Institute	A. W. Harris, Ph.D., D.Sc.
Pottstown, Pa.	Hill School	John Meigs, Ph.D.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	Riverview Academy	J. B. Bisbee, M.A.
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	Vassar College	James M. Taylor, D.D., LL.D.
Princeton, N. J.	Princeton University	Woodrow Wilson, LL.D.
Reading, Pa.	Boy's High School	Robert S. Birch, B.A.
Redbank, N. J.	High School	S. V. Arrowsmith.
Rochester, N. Y.	University of Rochester	Rush Rhees, LL.D.
Rye, N. Y.	Rye Seminary	Mrs. Life and the Misses Stowe.
Schenectady, N. Y.	Schenectady High School	Arthur Marvin, M.A.
Schenectady, N. Y.	Union University	A. V. V. Raymond, D.D., LL.D.
S. Bethlehem, Pa.	Lehigh University	
State College, Pa.	Pennsylvania State College	George W. Atherton, LL.D.
Summit, N. J.	Kent Place School	Sarah Woodman Paul.
Swarthmore, Pa.	Swarthmore College	Joseph Swain, LL.D.
Swarthmore, Pa.	Swarthmore Prep. School	Arthur H. Tomlinson.
Syracuse, N. Y.	Syracuse University	Rev. Jas. Roscoe Day, S.T.D., LL.D.
Trenton, N. J.	State Model School	James M. Green, Ph.D.
Troy, N. Y.	Emma Willard School	Anna Leach, M.A.
Utica, N. Y.	The Balliol School	{ Mrs. Louise Sheffield Brownell Saunders, B.A.
Utica, N. Y.	Utica Free Academy	{ Edith Rockwell Hall, B.A. Martin G. Benedict, M.A., Ph.D.
Warren, Pa.	Warren High School	W. L. MacGowan.
Washington, D. C.	George Washington University	Charles W. Needham, D.D., LL.D.
Washington, D. C.	Friends' Select School	{ Thomas W. Sidwell. Frances Haldeman Sidwell.
Washington, D. C.	Gallaudet College	Edw. Minor Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D.
Washington, D. C.	Howard University	Rev. John Gordon, D.D.
Washington, D. C. (Wisconsin Av.)	The Washington School for Boys	Louis L. Hooper.
Washington, Pa.	Trinity Hall	William W. Smith.
Washington, Pa.	Washington and Jefferson College	James D. Moffatt, D.D.
Wayne, Pa.	St. Luke's School	Charles Henry Strout, M.A.
Waynesburg, Pa.	Waynesburg College	A. F. Lewis, A.M.
West Chester, Pa.	State Normal School	G. M. Phillips, M.A., Ph.D.
West Chester, Pa.	West Chester High School	Addison L. Jones, M.A.
Westminster, Md.	Western Maryland College	T. H. Lewis.
Westtown, Pa.	Westtown School	Edward G. Smedley.
Wilmington, Del.	Friends' School	Herschel A. Norris, M.A.
Wilmington, Del.	High School	A. H. Berlin.
Yonkers, N. Y.	Halsted School	Mary S. Jenkins.
Yonkers, N. Y.	Yonkers High School	William A. Edwards.
York, Pa.	Collegiate Institute	E. T. Jeffers.

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- BALTIMORE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE. Henry A. Couvers, William H. Hall, Samuel M. North, Edward Reisler, J. Ward Willson.
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- BEAVER COLLEGE, *Beaver, Pa.* Arthur Staples, President.
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- BLAIRSVILLE COLLEGE, *Blairsville, Pa.* Rev. S. B. Linhart, President; Mrs. S. B. Linhart.
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